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#96 October 1984

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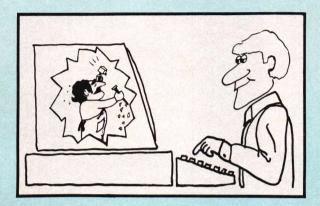
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OCTOBER 1984 **VOLUME 9, ISSUE 10**

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This Month

If you have not already noticed, we have a new column starting this month. Mike Swaine will be writing The Software Designer, a column intended to present the views of industry leaders on software design topics. This debut discusses issues of programming style differences. Tools for software design will be next month's topic.

Also as of this issue, Of Interest will be written by Randy Sutherland. Our congratulations to Randy on his new endeavor. Michael Wiesenberg, who has handled that task for nearly two and a half years, will be moving on to do other writing for us, including one of the new puzzle columns we have coming up. Our thanks to Michael for the job he's done for us. We look forward to his future contributions.

Coming Down the Pike

We've been looking at our editorial calendar for 1985 and thought we'd let you in on some of the special issues we've planned. As you already know, we plan to focus on Unix this December. The February 1985 issue will be our 100th issue, and we figure we should do some celebrating. March 1985 will be an artificial intelligence issue, including the winner from the Fifth Generation Programming Competition (you did get your entry in, didn't you?). June 1985 will focus on telecommunications. September will still be the annual Forth issue, and we will close out the year with a focus on the latest developments in operating systems (the exact topics, of course, partially dictated by what transpires during the year).

While this is only part of what we have in store, it will give readers something to look forward to and authors something to plan toward. Authors should note that the copy deadline is likely to be about three months prior to the issue date, though we will announce deadlines as we get closer to the issues.

This Month's Referees

Dr. Dobb's Journal regularly draws on the expertise of a Board of Referees for technical evaluation of material submitted for publication. In addition to remarks to the editors concerning accuracy and relevance of manuscripts, the referees often provide constructive comments for authors regarding clarity or completeness. Their remarks help prevent authors form exposing blindspots or misconceptions in print and help ensure that our readers receive clear and accurate information. The referees who contributed to this month's issue are:

Wayne Chin, Hewlett-Packard, Information Networks Division Georges Grinstein, Computer Science Dept., Fitchburg State College John P. Keyes, Microsoft

Ben Laws, Computer Science, North Texas State University Scott D. Thomas, Informatics General Corporation

Dr. Dobb's Journal

ARTICLES

The explanation of several undocumented dBASE II More dBASE II Programming Techniques 26 features includes SET CALL TO ADDRESS and CALL by Gene Head VARIABLE, as well as the dBASE hex file format. (Reader Ballot No. 193) Simple Calculations with Complex Numbers 30 The author discusses the theory of complex numbers and complex functions and how they can be implemented in by David D. Clark computer programs. (Reader Ballot No. 194) GREP.C—A Unix-like Generalized Born of the need for something more general than the 50 pattern-searching capability of a text editor, this pattern Regular Expression Parser matcher implements most of the features of the Unix by Allen Holub utility of the same name. (Reader Ballot No. 195) DEPARTMENTS Editorial 6 10 Letters Dr. Dobb's Clinic Putting his money where his mouth is, the Intern presents an optimization scheme for compilers on microcomputers (Reader Ballot No. 190) 20 One of those real-life embarrassment stories . . . (Reader CP/M Exchange

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EDITORIAL



rive months ago I wrote my first editorial for *DDJ* and in it made several promises about the editorial direction of the magazine. Since then, editor Reynold Wiggins and I have spent twenty-odd weeks examining the Doctor, and recently the entire *DDJ* staff spent a three-day weekend poking *DDJ* with every available instrument. The prognosis is excellent; *DDJ* is a healthy, growing magazine, and I can now be more specific about what the magazine will not be doing over the next year.

DDJ will not abandon 8-bit software so long as useful creative software development is being done on 8-bit systems; forever, so far as we can tell. DDJ will, on the other hand, focus more deliberate attention on 16- and 32-bit software. We'll publish MSDOS- and Unix-based software and we'll investigate software development on the newer microprocessors. If you conclude that we intend to stay pretty loose, you're right.

DDJ will not become a product-specific magazine. We'll always prefer the MSDOS application to the PCDOS and the DOS-independent application to the strictly MSDOS. We are interested in the Mac/Lisa/PARC human interface, naturally; it's a highly significant development in personal computer software. But the insights embodied in the Mac are not proprietary.

DDJ will not become language-specific, either. Most of the code published in other computer magazines is in BASIC. Not so in DDJ, since we try to furnish consequential code for software designers. Despite the fact that this magazine was founded to put a version of BASIC in the public domain, its editors have never considered BASIC an ideal language either for software development or for communicating ideas about programming.

Apparently Kemeney and Kurtz agree; the designers of BASIC seem to have concluded that BASIC would be better off being Pascal (i.e. True BASIC) just as Pascal's designer declares his language obsolete, to be succeeded by Modula-2. Pascal remains, however, a good notation for communicating algorithms, so we'll doubtless continue to publish some Pascal code. We'll be investigating Modula-2, but we do have some questions about how and in what settings it's likely to be useful (see "The Software Designer" in this issue). Our Modula coverage is likely to focus at least for the immediate future on what the language has to offer programmers (as in "An Introduction to Modula-2 for Pascal Programmers," May 1984), rather than on providing tools for Modula programmers.

DDJ has participated in the evolution of Forth as a language, but we will shift our coverage of Forth slightly over the next few months. We disagree with Byte magazine's assessment that Forth is still a language in flux. Such developments as the FVG Forth floating-point standard (described in DDJ last month) are evidence that Forth is ending its formative years and is becoming an adult language. That being our view, we'll be leaving some of the residual wrangling to other, language-specific forums, and we'll concentrate on providing useful Forth tools.

The most important language in microcomputer software development today is C, and *DDJ* will continue in 1985 to be the best source for new programming tools in C.

Finally, DDJ will not lower its technical standards. Many readers have insisted that we not water down the technical level of the magazine. Heaven help us if that's bad advice, because we're going to follow it. On the other hand, don't be alarmed to see a page here and there given to humor, puzzles or programming competitions. Serious doesn't mean stoic.

Michael Swans

Michael Swaine

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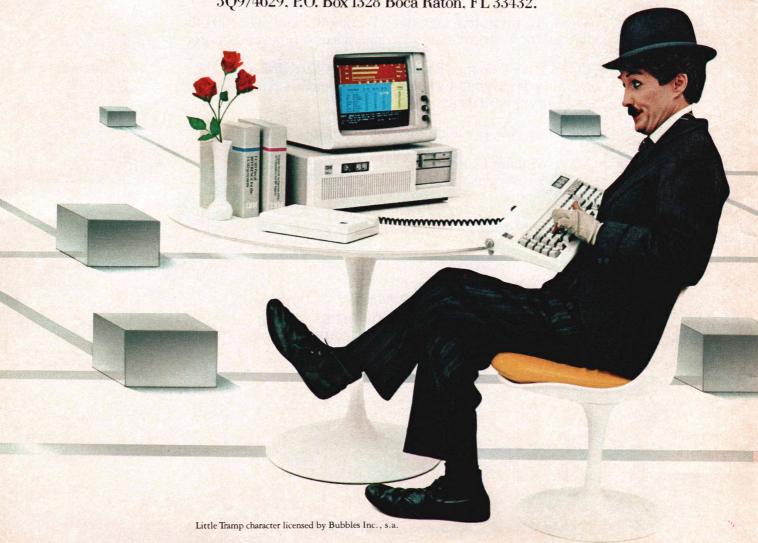
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Commodore Commentary

Dear DDJ:

The June 84 article on CP/M on the Commodore 64 is "just what the doctor ordered." I think that the Commodore will become a very important tool, but there is one fly in the ointment. The disk drive is s-l-o-w. A serial data link is not as stiff or noisy as flat cable (the dreaded RFI monster) but is inherently slower. Examination of the Commodore 64 Programmers Reference Manual seems to indicate something seriously wrong. It just couldn't be that slow. Even with 1000 picofarad loading, the 1000 ohm pull-up resistor would give a fast 1 microsecond time constant. Data handling in the CPU is the real problem, but even so, it should take less than 30 microseconds per bit. A 256-byte disk block should transfer in less than 62 milliseconds. It may be that cycle stealing by the display device requires huge operating margins. In this case, letting the CPU provide data clocking for both incoming and outgoing block transfers eliminates the need.

I may have missed something obvious, but that still does not excuse Commodore's "floppy tape" philosophy.

Yours: Frank J. Wilson 2468 Elden St., Apt. J Costa Mesa, CA 92627

More Chinese Forth

Dear Doctor:

As a longtime student of Chinese and a recent convert to Forth, I enjoyed Timothy Huang's article in the June 1984 issue of *DDJ* (No. 92). I agree that Forth should translate very well into Chinese. However, the use of the old phonetic symbols to spell out Chinese words is a giant step backwards. Overseas Chinese may know the old phonetics, but I believe that these symbols are

little used on the mainland now.

It would be quite straightforward and much better to use China's own *Pinyin* for this purpose. This is not just another phonetic system; rather the Latin alphabet has actually been incorporated into the Chinese language. The letters are used for teaching and to provide a precise description of speech sounds.

For example, the Forth word OR could be typed in as HUOZHE; the Chinese will see this as the normal word for "or" (the regular tone marks could be used: HUOZHE, but programmers could probably do without them and simplify the code). Likewise, ROT would be FANZHUAN, DROP becomes DIUDIAO, and DUP is CHONGFU. The byte-rich Pinyin versions could be shortened, e.g., like our ROT and DUP.

The main advantages would be that the words would be real Chinese words, and foreign computer consultants (who could already know *Pinyin*) would have easy access to the code.

Huang refers to the significance of the billion Chinese; most of them are on the mainland, however. Sooner or later, the overseas Chinese will have to come to terms with the big changes that have been made in the Chinese language during the last generation. In writing Forth, these changes may actually benefit the programmer.

> Roger V. Swearingen 5333 Baltimore Dr., #158 La Mesa, CA 92041 (619) 697-3290

And the Shotgun Approach

Dear Doctor.

I must say that, as a new subscriber, it is a pleasure to have an issue arrive that demonstrates my own good judgment with regard to magazine dollars. While I'm not a C programmer, the C articles

were a font of interesting algorithms and ideas. The core of my interest, though, was in the three articles directly addressing my interests—CP/M on the Commodore 64, Chinese Forth, and decision and cognition theory in Comments on Sixth Generation Computers.

With regard to CP/M on the C-64, I would add to the author's description of how to patch around having two 1541 disk drives the admonition that the 1541 was not really built for this job in the first place, and if you are going to have more than one disk drive on the Commodore-64, you should seriously consider getting a dual drive unit in the first place. The second comment is that, beyond the drive format availability, there is the fact that the 64 has a 40-column screen, and while you can get around this, it comes at a price that belies the 64's original value. Yes, there are a lot of Commodore 64s out there, but no, there are not a lot with CP/M; this situation is stuck in the old loop that it will take 64-formatted disks available in the real world to make CP/M a more popular option for the 64, and it will take more 64s with CP/M to make more 64-format disks available. The screen makes it all that much less likely.

Timothy Huang's article on Chinese Forth was very intriguing. It would be nice to see what matrix representations of the listed characters would look like and what resolution is necessary to produce them. I might also comment that in a subroutine-threaded Forth (in 6502), C: could simply be

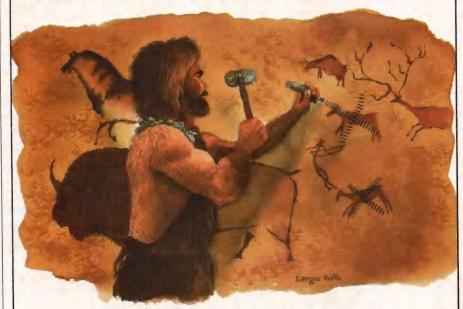
: C: create -4 allot JUMP C; ',;

that is, back up over the 4-byte subroutine-threaded create routine, put the constant for the processor's jump instruction (\$4C for the 6502) into the dictionary, and follow it with the cfa of the primary instruction. This demonstrates the versatility of subroutinethreaded Forth—with direct executable machine instructions, you can jump directly into a definition. (For a discussion of subroutine-threaded Forth, see the June Byte.)

Ah yes, but the almost-gem of the issue was Michael Doherty's continuation of a dialogue on the future of computing. Almost everything Mr. Doherty said is towards the point, if not quite to the point. With a slightly stronger base in physiology, he could have come right out and said it—the human brain is not, repeat, not a Turing machine. We don't know exactly what it is yet, but we do know that the basic unit of the human brain is not only switched but also magnitude modulated, and that its output may act so as to switch other neurons, to modify the magnitude of their responses, or to do both simultaneously with the same or distinct target neurons. Push or pull it any way you prefer, and the result is still that the basic building block makes a difference. It may in fact not be possible to build a Turing machine with magnitude-modulated components; it is at any rate clear that this did not occur with the human brain. Here perhaps the useful metaphoric distinction is not that between quantity and quality but between number and quantity. You always have a distinct number of things. You never have a distinct quantity of something. When we improve our measurement capability to measure, say, an exact quart of liquid, we turn and look and, lo, what we have found is the number of atoms in a quart, and we have turned from measuring quantity to number. Please note that I am using these words in their squishy English senses and not in the precise Latin quantum of physics.

So much of Mr. Doherty's commentary was on the ball. He slips up on the discussion of information storage, however. He confuses information with the media on which it is stored. His oversight is not an uncommon one, after all. Who has seen information that isn't stored in some medium or other? Good question indeed, and the answer may just be everyone, for we don't know and are not yet even ready to address the question of where the quantum information of a quantum

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particle is exactly.

The reason that this is to the point is that, if this quantum information is in a null space, then it would be, in actuality, medium-free information, because storage media don't fit in dimensionless spaces. Well, if quantum information can be there, it is possible to entertain the notion of keeping other information there, and then the storage "space" constraint on information is quite meaningless. That doesn't affect the main question of what will be processing the information, and it's not too hard to see that the obvious next step after putting discrete processors in parallel is to put them in parallel with distributed analog processors. This leaves open whether we can engineer better analog processors than the von Neuman machines running around putting out provocative magazines and the like.

> Yours, Bruce R. McFarling 600 W. Broadway #6 Granville, OH 43023

[More letters on Sixth Generation dialogue next month. — Ed.]

Turbo Tidbits

Dear Dr. Dobb's:

I enjoyed the review of Turbo Pascal in the June issue. I have been using Turbo Pascal for several months, and it is an excellent program, fully deserving the praise in the *DDJ* review. I thought it would be useful if I listed some of the problems I have discovered in the Turbo Pascal system. I am presently using version 2.0 of Turbo Pascal on an 8-bit (CP/M) system. As far as I have been able to determine, virtually all of the following persist in both versions 1 and 2.

- 1. The installation program reverses the definition of screen hiliting and unhiliting commands. There are several sources of confusion in the terminal installation program, which manifest themselves when nonstandard installation is attempted.
- 2. The listing program, TLIST, has several bugs, the most serious of which result in missing characters or lines and an improper number of lines per page, which puts the page break in the middle of the page for long programs.
 - 3. In the 8-bit version, recursion is

not permitted unless a special compiler directive is used. However, no error message appears either at compilation or run-time when code is recursive. This is a serious problem, because recursion may be indirect and hence not obvious (procedure A calls procedure B which calls procedure C which calls ... procedure A).

- 4. When inline code is used, a variable identifier may be used, which, according to the manual, is replaced by two bytes which contain the memory address of the variable. In fact, the variable name is sometimes replaced by the address of the variable and sometimes by an address which contains the address of the variable (indirect addressing). Which of these is the case depends on whether the variable is global, local, a var parameter, or other parameter, and in some cases how the variable was used previously in the program block.
- 5. Turbo Pascal programs destroy all but about the first 30 characters in the command line buffer.

Even with these problems, Turbo Pascal is a great program and a bargain. However, since Borland was notified of some of these problems well in

advance of the version 2.0 release, it is unfortunate that they didn't make any corrections in the new version or even include a list of known bugs in the documentation.

Sincerely yours, Harry Demarest Astro Research, Inc. Box 74 Corvallis, OR 97339

Dear DDJ,

Regarding your review of Turbo Pascal in the June 84 issue, I agree that generally Turbo is a vast improvement over other compilers. There is one problem with Turbo which I find very disturbing, however, and that is the way it handles (?) integer overflow. The program (see figure below) illustrates the problem. A total program crash would be much more acceptable than to have this sort of viper lurking around. To Borland's credit, section 3.1 of their manual plainly states what will occur, and there is even an entry in the index, but still how hard could it be to fix this?

> Donald G. Simpson 1121 Manchester Dr. Raleigh, NC 27609

```
Line 1 Col 1 Insert Indent B:INTBUG.PAS
program IntegerBug (input, output):
 Demo to display results of integer overflow }
{ Turbo Pascal v2.0 MS-DOS configured for Zenith Z-100 }
var n: integer;
begin
      ClrScr;
      write (Enter an integer between -32,767 and +32,767: \longrightarrow );
      readln (n);
      writeln;
      writeln ('The integer you have entered is: -> ', n);
     writeln ('Twice the integer you have entered is: -> ', 2 * n)
end.
Enter an integer between -32,767 and +32,767: \longrightarrow 15000
The integer you have entered is: -> 15000
Twice the integer you have entered is: -> 30000
Enter an integer between -32,767 and +32,767: \longrightarrow 32767
The integer you have entered is: —> 32767
Twice the integer you have entered is: ->-2
                                   Figure
```

Dear Sir:

In the review of Turbo Pascal in your June issue, there is an apparent misunderstanding of the with statement. I refer to material in the righthand column of page 76. The following Pascal excerpts should clarify the matter.

type rec2 = records1: integer; s2: boolean end: rec1 = record rl: integer; r2: rec1 end: var a: recl; begin with a.r2 do s1 := 5: writeln(a.r2.s1) end This will obviously output the inte-

ger "5". Now amend the code part to read: begin with a do with r2 do begin

s1 := 5;r1 := 4writeln(a.r2.s1,'',a.r1) end

The output will be "5 4". Obviously the nested with statement qualifies with "a" where applicable and with "a.r2" where applicable. Finally, "with a,b,c ... " is an abbreviation for

"with a do with b do with c do . . .". So, the above fragment can be written:

begin

with a,r2 do begin s1 := 5;r1 := 4writeln(a.r2.s1,'',a.r1) end

I hope this sheds more light than it does confusion.

> Yours very truly, Herbert Kanner 211 Washington Ave. Palo Alto, CA 94301

> > DDI

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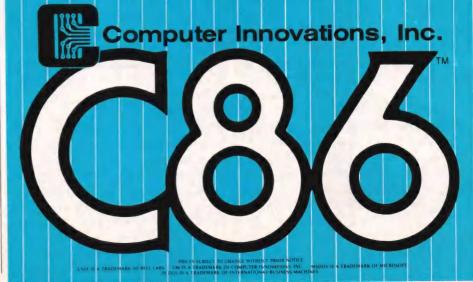
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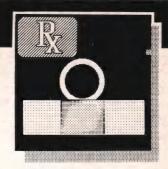
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DR. DOBB'S CLINIC



by D. E. Cortesi, Resident Intern

An Optimizing Technique

Early this year, your intern gave vent to the frustration he feels at the primitive designs of compilers for personal computers. All (or, at any rate, most) of them are simple one-pass, recursivedescent parsers. If you don't know what that means, study the Small-C compiler; it's a textbook example. In a recursive-descent compiler, the flow of control in the compiler echoes the syntactic structure of the source program (the syntax graph of the program at any point is described by the state of the compiler's dynamic call-stack when it has analyzed to that point). In a one-pass compiler, the object code for each text element is emitted as soon as that element has been parsed.

Such compilers are (relatively) easy to design, and they run quickly. However, they are incapable of doing any kind of global optimization—this operation requires the compiler to make multiple passes over the program. In a multipass compiler, the first pass (which can be designed as a recursive descent) validates the program's syntax, collects information in the symbol table, and probably builds a tokenized version of the expression text for later processing. Later passes can apply the information found in the first pass in such a way as to make the final object code smaller, faster, or both.

Several readers responded with long, thoughtful letters on the place of C and its compilers. David S. Tilton, for example, made the point that because C is a low-level language designed to give the programmer close control of the hardware, we shouldn't expect a C compiler to do much optimization. He said, first, that the language is so simple there aren't many opportunities for a compiler to do optimization, and second, that the language gives programmers the tools they need to do the optimization themselves.

Another respondent, Mike Meyer, made an architectural point. He pointed out that most data references in a recursive language such as C are to local variables and hence to the stack. "Unfortunately, the 8080 family just doesn't support such things well. What a local reference turns into is 'get the item so many words from the frame pointer.' On an 8080, this translates into several instructions just to load a local."

Well, these letters got us thinking. In 8-bit machines, as Meyer says, the code for accessing a variable with the dynamic storage class is much slower than that for accessing a variable with the static storage class. Local variables of a function are dynamic by default, but the programmer can give them the static storage class.

Now, every book on C programming advocates the use of lots of small functions—each with its handful of local variables—and these locals are just the pointers and counters that are most heavily used. But if you are using an 8-bit machine, all those locals will cost you heavily. "Everybody" knows that for best performance at least some of them should be declared static.

There are problems in doing so. You have to decide which functions are in the critical 20% and which of their locals are really important; you have to modify the source text and recompile. These are clerical tasks that the computer should do. Furthermore, if you make a local variable static in a recursive function, you'll cause a tricky bug. It isn't always easy to tell which functions can be called recursively and which cannot, especially if you are modifying someone else's program.

Finally, there is no speed penalty on dynamic locals in most 16-bit machines. In the 8086, for example, it costs no more time to access the stack frame than it does to access the data

segment. Yet, if your 8-bit program is ported to a 16-bit machine, those static local declarations will port right along with it.

This seems like a perfect example with which to refute Tilton's point-a case in which the programmer could not do a decent job of optimizing and in which the compiler, even an 8-bit compiler, could. Shouldn't an 8-bit C compiler be able to tell which local variables should be static and which not? At the very least, the compiler could tell which functions contain no function calls at all; their locals certainly can be static. Furthermore, no two such functions can ever be active at the same time, so the locals of all such functions could be allocated in the same area of static storage.

Well, it's all very well to say a compiler *should* do these things, but is it really a practical thing to ask? We sat down one day and worked out the optimization scheme that follows. After describing the method at a high level, we'll consider its space and time requirements.

The Well-Behaved Function

The input to a C compiler is a source text that declares one or more functions. Each function is public; it can be called from other compilations.

The functions contain expressions, and an expression can include a reference to other functions. A function that refers to itself is directly recursive. A function can be indirectly recursive, in that it calls a function (that calls a function, and so on) that calls the first function again.

A reference to a function that is not declared in the same text is an external reference; the compiler can't know anything about the called function. In particular, a function that contains an external reference is potentially recursive, because the external function

might call (a function that calls, and so on) the first function again.

The functions we want to identify are those that are not recursive. Because the compiler's information is limited, we will take a conservative approach, assuming a function is recursive if there is the slightest possibility that it might ever be so. The functions we can identify as definitely nonrecursive we will call "well-behaved functions," or WBFs. A WBF can have its local variables allocated in static storage. We can give a recursive definition of a WBF:

- · A function that calls no other function is well behaved.
- · A function that calls only WBFs is well behaved.

The optimization scheme is based on this definition, but a lot of details have to be tended to first.

GLFs and TFs

The functions of the C standard library are named as external functions, yet they are almost always well behaved. We can think of only one case in which a library function is ill behaved. In some implementations, a file access function may, on encountering a disk error, make an indirect call to a user-written error function. In this case, the error function might conceivably call the function that called the library function in the first place, thus producing a recursion.

In the main, functions from the standard library are well behaved, and they are named in many user functions that, but for these references, would be seen as well behaved. Let us define a set GLF of good library functions that are always well behaved and use it to expand our definition of a WBF:

- · A function that calls no other function is a Terminal Function (TF).
- · A function that calls only GLFs is also
- · A TF is a WBF.
- · A function that calls only WBFs is a

We will detect WBFs in two stages: first, we will find all the TFs; then we will find the WBFs that are not TFs.

The Symbol Table

We are supposing a multipass compiler. The first pass performs the syntactic parse of the source text and, for every identifier named in it, builds a symbol table entry (STE). We are concerned only with the STEs built for function identifiers. Besides the other information the compiler needs, we will require these items in a function STE:

- glf: Boolean; true for a good library function
- idf: Boolean; true for an internally defined function (one defined in this source text)
- prf: Boolean; true for a possibly recursive function
- caf: Boolean; true when this function calls another function
- · pwb: Boolean; true for a possibly well-behaved function
- twb: Boolean; temporary flag for

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- well-behaved functions
- wbf: Boolean; true for a well-behaved function
- asl: Boolean; the aggregate size of the local variables declared in this function
- osl: integer; the offset of static locals (when used)
- map: integer; used in mapping during pass 2

The use of these items will become clear as we proceed.

Before Pass 1

Before the first pass begins, the compiler must prepare a list of names of GLFs. The list can be coded into the compiler or it can be read from an external file. The latter course would allow users to extend the list with names of their own GLFs or to remove names if they should modify a library function in such a way as to make it ill behaved.

During Pass 1

During the first pass, the compiler must collect information that will be used to identify WBFs. These actions are in addition to the other things it does while parsing the source text.

When an STE is created for a function, the added variables listed above must be initialized. Except for glf, all the Booleans can be initialized to false. The name of the function must be looked up in the list of GLF names and the glf Boolean set true if it is found and false otherwise. The contents of the integer items can be undefined. When a function identifier is parsed in an expression or an initializer, an STE will be created as described (or merely found, if the function was declared previously).

When a function declaration is parsed, its STE will be created (or found, if the function is declared after it has been referenced). At that time, the idf Boolean must be left *false* if the declaration has the external attribute or set *true* if it does not. After a nonexternal function has been parsed, the asl integer must be set to the aggregate size of the local variables declared in the function.

When a function call is parsed, the compiler must record it as a tuple (source, target) in a list of such call tuples. In the tuple, source is the address of the STE of the current function, target that of the called function.

If the call is indirect through a pointer, the called function is unknown. In that case, the tuple should be recorded as (source, source). This makes the call appear to be a direct recursion. That's reasonable, because an indirect call could conceivably represent a recursion, either direct or indirect.

At the end of the first pass, the list of GLF names has served its purpose. Its space can be reclaimed.

Identify TFs

When pass 1 is over, an STE exists for every function identifier, and a call tuple has been recorded for every call. Now we can identify the terminal functions (TFs). To do so, scan the list of call tuples and, for every (source, target).

- if (source = = target), set source.prf = true
- else if (not (target.idf or target.glf)),
 set source.prt = true
- else if (not target.glf), set source.caf = true

The TFs are functions that call no functions or call only GLFs. They can now be marked as WBFs. Because they can't be recursive, their locals can be static. Because they call no user-defined functions, no two of them can ever be active simultaneously; therefore, their static locals can be allocated in a space that is common to all of them.

We will need two variables to handle storage allocation: slbot will contain the base offset of an area for static locals, and sltop will track the highwater mark of the area. Set both to zero. Then scan the symbol table and, for every function entry in which (idf and not (prf or caf)) is true:

- set wbf = true
- set osl = slbot
- set sltop = max(sltop,asl)

When code is generated for WBF, its locals will be allocated at an offset of osl in an area of static storage. The locals of a function not marked as a WBF will be given dynamic allocation as usual.

If it should prove that there are no TFs, nothing further can be done.

Map PWB Functions

We have established the TFs (which are also WBFs), but there are more WBFs to be found. They are a subset of

the set of possibly well-behaved functions (PWBs). To locate this subset (actually multiple subsets), we need to establish a mapping from the PWBs to the integers 1.. P, where P is the count of PWBs.

Allocate space for an array of pointers to function STEs and call it F. Then scan the symbol table for PWBs. A PWB is a function STE for which (idf and not(prf)) is true. This includes the TFs plus all the functions that contain neither an indirect call, an external call, nor a direct recursion. (Some of these may yet be recursive. We will never identify them as such, but we won't call them WBFs, either.) Initialize P to zero. For each function STE,

- set pwb = idf and not(prf)
- if not(pwb), then iterate, else
- increment P
- set map = P
- set F[P] to the address of the STE

Now the functions F[1..P] are the (possibly) well-behaved ones, and the array F serves to map them to the integers 1..P. If there are none, of course, nothing further can be done.

Cross-Map Function Calls

We must prepare an array of Booleans B having P rows and columns. Each row B[r,*] will represent calling function F[r]; each column B[*,c] will represent called function F[c]. Allocate the array and clear its elements to false.

Fill in the array with a scan of the call tuples. For each tuple (source, target), if both source and target are PWBs, set B[source.map,target.map] to true.

After this is done, the list of call tuples has served its purpose; its space can be reclaimed.

Discover WBFs

We will now make multiple passes over the array B. On the first pass we will find those functions that call only TFs. Because they do, they are WBFs; hence, their locals can be static. Because they don't call each other, no two of them can be active at once; hence, their locals can be allocated in a pool that is common to them (but distinct from the space used by TFs). In each later pass we will find a set of functions that call only WBFs found in prior passes. The same comments apply to each set of functions.



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P.O. Box 3253 Fullerton, CA 92634 714-637-5362 To be sure that the functions found in each pass don't call each other, we will use the twb flag as a temporary note of a function's well-behavedness until the pass is complete. We will also count the number of WBFs we discover. When we make a pass that discovers none, we will stop. The logic of the outer loop is:

- set discoveries = 0
- set slbot = sltop
- for r from 1 to P, perform inner procedure
- if discoveries = 0, break
- for r from 1 to P, if F[r].twb, mark F[r] a WBF

To mark a function as a WBF, we do these things:

- set twb = false
- set wfb = true
- set osl = slbot
- set sltop = $\max(\text{sltop}, \text{slbot} + \text{asl})$

The inner procedure inspects one function to see if it is well behaved. It needs to be performed only for functions that are not yet known to be WBFs. Its purpose is to set the F[r].twb flag.

- if (F[r].wbf), return
- set F[r].twb = true and perform inner loop

The inner loop runs a variable c from 1 to P. For every B[r,c] that is true, it checks F[c] wbf; if it is false, then F[r] twb must be set false and the inner loop can end.

At the completion of this operation, the WBFs have been identified in nonconflicting groups. Each group has been assigned an offset for its static locals, and sltop contains the aggregate size of all static locals.

Performance

Through the point of identifying the TFs, this method shouldn't impose much of a load on a compiler, even an 8-bit compiler. The code added to pass 1 and the code to find the TFs are fairly small. The primary cost is in three blocks of space: the list of GLFs, the list of call tuples, and the extra items in a STE.

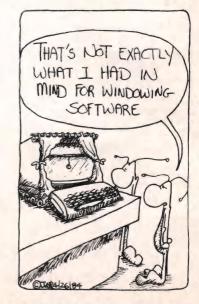
If space is a problem, the list of names of GLFs need not be complete. The list might contain only the names of the most common library functions. The more names in it, the more TFs that can be found. However, the only effect of omitting some GLFs is to

make PRFs of some functions that could have been TFs; these will have dynamic locals when they could have had static ones, but the object program will still run.

The list of call tuples can also be truncated. It could be allocated in a small area of fixed size. Each tuple needs only 4 bytes, so an area as small as 256 bytes could contain up to 64 tuples—a useful number for small programs. When a function call is parsed and the tuple list is found to be full, pass I would mark the source function as a PRF and not record a tuple. As a result, a function whose calls were not completely recorded as tuples could never be identified as a TF or a PWB.

The extra STE information could impose the largest cost, because it adds several bytes to every symbol-table entry. However, that need not be true. Not every STE describes a function. The information unique to a function could be allocated separately and dynamically when a function is entered in the symbol table. The basic STE format would only need to allow room for a pointer to the function information, not the information itself. Furthermore, some of the STE items used here can be overlapped. The map integer may be a union with the osl integer, and the pwb and caf flags can be a union.

The cost of the second phase, locating other WBFs, is harder to analyze. It requires F, a vector of addresses of length P, but P is not likely to exceed 100, so F is unlikely to occupy more than 256 bytes. Furthermore, F could be built in the space previously occu-



pied by the list of GLFs.

The array B has P * P elements, so it could become quite large if it used one byte per element—10K bytes when P=100. If it were stored as one bit per element, however, its size would be reasonable. In any event, the arrays F and B are transient; they can be discarded as soon as this part of the compile is finished.

The time cost of the second phase is potentially large. Each pass through the outer loop takes time proportional to P; there might be as many as P passes made. The inner loop takes time proportional to P, so at first blush the running time appears to be proportional to P cubed. It is not quite that bad, however, because the inner loop is only applied to functions that are not yet marked as WBF. Initially all the TFs are so marked, and more functions are marked on each pass. Furthermore, the inner loop can break off as soon as it is known that the current function calls a function that is not known as a

In fact, the inner loop need not be a loop at all, if B is stored one bit per

element. The wbf flags of the functions F[1...P] could be collected into a bit vector before the outer loop commences—while building F, for example. Then the inner loop could be reduced to anding the current row of B with that bit vector and comparing the result to the current row of B. This effectively removes the loop from the inner procedure.

That done, the time cost of the second phase becomes proportional to 2P times the number of passes made. The number of passes will be roughly proportional to the depth of nesting of function calls in the compilation. At one extreme, the compilation might define a chain of functions, A calling B calling ... calling Z, a TF. Then one WBF would be found on each pass, and P passes would be made. At the other extreme, the compilation might define a set of independent TFs (and PRFs, but those are irrelevant), and only one pass would be made that would find no more WBFs.

Summary

In summary, we've outlined a method

by which a C compiler could locate sets of functions whose local variables can be static and allocated in common pools. The time and space costs of the method are small for finding the first set (the TFs) and probably reasonable for finding many sets.

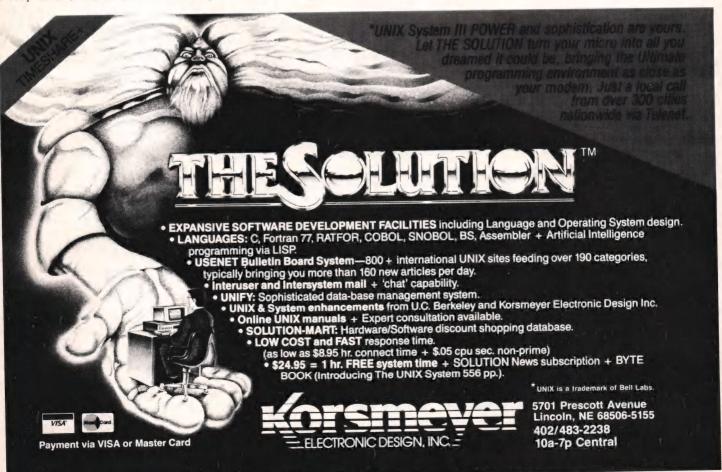
The method is described in the context of C, but it ought to be applicable to Pascal or Modula-2. Furthermore, in languages where every function is not automatically public, the TFs and WBFs have other useful properties. TFs are potential candidates for in-line expansion as macros, for example, and all WBFs are candidates for use of a short-circuit protocol for procedure calls that doesn't require a full stack frame.

We'd be delighted to hear from any designer who actually tries the method out or from any reader who finds a flaw in it.

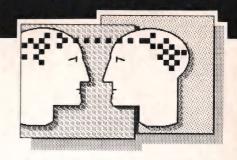
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CP/M EXCHANGE



by Robert Blum

Everybody apparently has at least one true-life story to relate when the topic of conversation turns to humiliation. I'm no exception. I used to have several favorite stories; I now have another.

Several months ago I decided that I soon would have to replace some of my then dreadfully old S-100 hardware because I was beginning to experience excessive down time. Except for the cost of an upgrade, I wasn't at all upset at the prospect of buying some new hardware. I had been waiting quite a while for a sound reason to move ahead and bring up a higher performance system.

Many new high performance boards had become available since my original purchases. This caused me great consternation when deciding what I should buy. I wasn't unhappy with the performance or features of the boards I had at the time; they were simply old and needed replacement. As it finally worked out, I didn't find anything that better served my needs.

I elected first to renew my 4 MHz CompuPro Z80 CPU board with a more recent revision level of the same model, capable of 6 MHz operation. I knew my present memory cards would function perfectly at the increased clock rate because they were rated at 12 MHz, as were the I/O boards I was using.

I was not nearly as confident about the floppy disk controller that I had purchased from a different manufacturer. Of all the boards in my system at that time, the floppy disk controller was the most complex and the one that I knew the least about. I wasn't sure that I would be able to find a hardware solution to a speed-related problem if one were to occur. However, if at all possible, I wanted to keep the board because of the time I had spent finetuning my BIOS code. The thought of reinventing the wheel for another disk controller board didn't excite me in the least. Fortunately, a phone call to the

manufacturer brought good news: I could upgrade to the latest revision level board, which was guaranteed to be 100% software compatible with the old one and to run flawlessly at 6 MHz, all for only a nominal upgrade charge.

While waiting for the new disk controller to arrive, I ran diagnostics constantly for several days. During that time not one error occurred that I could attribute to the new hardware.

Soon the new disk controller arrived. I wasted no time getting it ready for use and couldn't have been happier when it booted for the first time from drive A:. All seemed rosy until several programs on the A: drive turned up lost. Listing the directory showed that the programs were definitely missing; in their place were several meaningless filenames. I began to feel a bit uneasy because the last time I saw a display of this type was when I helped a friend rebuild his disk directory after a mysterious system crash.

I executed my disk utility program, which allows sectors to be displayed in hexadecimal, to see what was causing these unknown filenames to appear. I started my search with data group zero, which on all standard CP/M systems is the start of the directory area. About halfway through data group one. I found a sector that had been completely zeroed. I didn't have a hint as to what could have done this but suspected that the disk controller might be more clock rate sensitive than I had been led to believe. I slowed the CPU down to 3 MHz. and inserted another disk into drive A:. Again the system booted on the first try, but this time it ran without destroying the directory.

This verified my first suspicion that the disk controller was speed sensitive. However, the manufacturer had told me that running at a faster rate would be no problem. I called again to find out if I had done something wrong or possibly had not configured the controller board correctly. I was told to check several wiring changes and was again assured that all would work as planned after the bugs were shaken out. I dutifully went about checking for any mistakes I had made during setup—without result.

Having thoroughly checked the hardware, I turned to my BIOS. The only area I could find that appeared in the least suspicious was a section of code in the warm boot routine that flushed any active deblocking buffers to disk when a program ended. I thought there was an outside chance that the disk heads were being moved before the deblocking buffers were written. I couldn't imagine this happening but commented out several instructions for testing purposes. After installing the modified version of the BIOS on the system tracks of a test disk, I again speeded up the CPU to 6 MHz and booted from disk. Once again, after several disk accesses, a sector in the directory was destroyed.

At this point I had tried everything I could think of. Rather than continue to shoot in the dark, I turned my troubled machine over to a hardware magician for repair. Several days later my system returned running flawlessly at 6 MHz. I was told that the solution was a few minor hardware adjustments.

For months now I have been running the system without any further hardware problems. However, a few software situations have cropped up. I use a fairly well-known data base package for most of my application-oriented tasks. After installing the latest release of this software, I suddenly began losing large portions of my indexed data files. Investigation showed that the data content of all the records was present in the body of the file but the indexes were being corrupted. Several phone conversations with the technical support people

proved fruitless, so I wrote a couple of test jobs that I knew would consistently fail on my system and sent them along for analysis with my distribution disks and a problem report.

A short while later the support people returned my package with a note saying that my test jobs had failed on their machine as well. They further acknowledged that a problem exists but they were unable to pinpoint the source since it appeared to be a CP/M idiosyncracy. In the meantime I could apply a temporary fix, which involved adding several instructions to each of my jobs to ensure that the data buffers were saved to disk after each update.

A practically identical situation reared its head a couple of weeks ago. I was in the process of installing a new release of my favorite BASIC interpreter. After I had completed the configuration process and was trying to execute the new interpreter, a message appeared on my CRT instructing me to run the configuration process before using the BASIC runtime system. That sounded like a reasonable request—ex-

cept I had already completed that step.

A call to the software manufacturer proved to be a valuable lesson for me. He informed me almost right from the beginning of our conversation that my problem was due to a faulty BIOS. He explained that his configuration utility reads the first sector of the program and modifies it according to answers given by the operator. At the conclusion of this interaction the changed sector is rewritten to disk and the file is closed. Unfortunately, CP/M 2.2 does not automatically flush deblocking buffers when a file is closed. Under normal circumstances this procedure works fine: problems occur if the BIOS warm start routine does not flush the remaining deblocking buffers when a program ends. This wasn't exactly what I wanted to hear, and I held my ground by refusing to give any credence to a possible bug in my BIOS.

The fellow with whom I was talking wasn't about to be swayed from his convictions, which made me think twice about what he had to say. It didn't occur to me until the next day that

months ago I had commented out several instructions in the warm start routine of my BIOS while trying to find a disk controller problem and in my haste had not returned them to their original order. After I did so, both of my software packages began to run properly.

If you have experienced problems of this type, you might want to look through the warm start portion of your BIOS listing for a sequence of instructions similar to the following:

LD A,HSTWRT ;IS HC

;IS HOST BUFF ;ER ACTIVE

OR A ;*

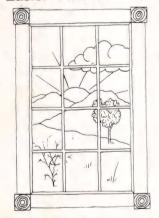
CALL NZ, WRITEHST ;YES—WRITE IT ;TO DISK

Depending on whether your BIOS was written from scratch or patterned after the DRI examples, the instructions in the listing may not be even close to those in your BIOS. Nonetheless, what you are looking for is a section of logic that tests for and flushes any remaining active deblocking buffers. DDJ

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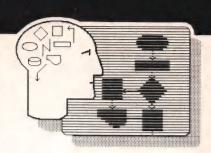
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THE SQFTWARE DESIGNER



by Michael Swaine

The following discussion never took place.

The software designers and critics whose words appear in this article have never gathered as a group to argue the design of software. If they had, it is doubtful that the precise exchange of views pieced together here would have resulted. But all the words I have quoted were actually spoken by the persons to whom they are attributed, and I have attempted to avoid changing the sense of any utterance in changing its context. I don't pretend that I have left every nuance intact.

The error of interpretation I am most likely to have committed is to make the speakers appear more dogmatic or polarized than they actually are. I have placed opposing views next to one another here to focus attention on the differing views; the undesired side effect of this is to make the contrasted views read more strongly than they would in isolation (or in their original context). Just remember that these people are all more complex individuals than their two-dimensional projections onto these pages.

The Participants

Rob Barnaby is the author of one of the best-selling software packages in history, WordStar. The compleat programmer, Barnaby delivered the original WordStar to MicroPro on disk, debugged and ready for duplication, along with camera-ready copy for the manual.

Lee Felsenstein is a hardware designer whose credits include the Pennywhistle modem, the Sol-20, and the Osborne 1.

Paul Heckel is the president of Quickview Systems, a software designer, and the author of *The Art of Friendly Software Design*.

Philippe Kahn is the president of Borland International, maker of Turbo

Pascal.

Giacomo Marini is the vice president for software development for Logitech, maker of Modula-2 compilers.

Anthony Skjellum is president of Pyramid Systems, a software designer, and *DDJ* 's C and Unix columnist.

Pierluigi Zappacosta is the president of Logitech and formerly developed software on early 8-bit microcomputers.

It began last spring. Borland International's Turbo Pascal was beginning to attract attention, and editor Reynold Wiggins and I drove to Scotts Valley to talk with Borland's president, Philippe Kahn. In the course of our discussion, the following exchange took place:

DDJ: Turbo Pascal is doing very well. Sidekick looks interesting. What's next? Will you do an implementation of C?

Kahn: C is a disease. When I see people writing spreadsheets in C, I think, "They're out of their minds." It was designed to write operating systems. Modula-2 is good for that [writing spreadsheets]. We'll do a C. We'll do a C because everyone wants a C. But in Europe C is seen as an American disease, and here people are trying to spread it.

Now, C is a programming language originally developed at Bell Labs for use in writing operating systems; it has recently become popular as a general-purpose programming language. But not, apparently, with Philippe Kahn. Struck by the vehemence of Kahn's reaction, I started talking with software designers and critics about what they thought the real differences were between C and Modula-2 from the perspective of software design, and the result was this pseudo-roundtable discussion.

Zappacosta: I'm surprised, in a way, that C was invented on the East Coast, because it would be the perfect language to have been invented on the West Coast.

Barnaby: I don't follow that. I think it's more a distinction of academic and scientific vs. free-flowing, open-ended design work.

Heckel: I think the point is not East Coast vs. West Coast, especially since there's so much movement between coasts, but rather the academic environment vs. the let's-get-the-job-done environment.

DDJ: Bell Labs is not academic?

Heckel: OK, you might argue that Bell Labs is really an academic environment, but I point out that the charter of that lab was not to develop a language like C. C was a side effect. They decided that they wanted a simple operating system, so they developed an early version of Unix; they decided they wanted a high-level language, so they developed C. None of these things were what they were supposed to be doing. They were designing for themselves, focusing on tools for their own immediate needs rather than on an academic concern with how pretty an algorithm would look on paper. Modula-2, on the other hand, was a follow-on of Pascal that came out of the academic community. And Pascal was designed for pedagogical purposes, for the way the world ought to be.

DDJ: I think Pierluigi was drawing on a more general West Coast stereotype, the free-wheeling, laid-back Californian. And whether or not the stereotype has any validity, I wonder if there isn't something to the idea that C is well designed—even if less deliberately designed than Modula—for a freer, less-regimented kind of programming. And if so, what does that mean?

Zappacosta: Yes. On the West Coast.

people say, I want to do whatever I want; I am my own boss. Why not? In the States you can change your last name, so why shouldn't you use C?

Skjellum: Well, freedom is an issue. But it can be a very practical matter. You sit down to write a program and you don't want to fool around with a lot of academic rules and constraints.

Heckel: Obviously the Bell Labs people tried to integrate as much of the knowledge they had gained regarding compiler construction and design as they could, but without getting in the programmer's way, still giving people the freedom they need. When you're designing real operating systems and real compilers, you try to give yourself freedom rather than a straitjacket.

DDJ: It sounds like getting the job done is also an issue. Paul and Tony have both characterized C as a get-it-done language, and Paul has contrasted it to the structured, modular style of Pascal and Modula. But Lee, you've been talking to people recently about your own get-it-done approach to design, and what you've been saying sounds structured, modular.

Felsenstein: I'm getting into computer programming a bit more. First of all, I can't avoid it. No hardware designer today can ignore software. Secondly, for our project for the Community Memory terminal we have to make a bit of clever firmware. I intend to do that in one day, but I don't intend to do it myself. I'll spend about three weeks working out the structure of the system without getting down to the details. Those will then be filled in by a small army of coders—volunteers, in this case—who will have received specifications and will sit down for a few hours to code small routines.

DDJ: You're approaching software design from the point of a hardware designer.

Felsenstein: It's similar to building at the level of the chip. You work from top down, build a structure, and at the last minute fill it in. To build software like hardware, I am finding, requires a fair amount of discipline to avoid rushing ahead, and it also requires that you be able to visualize the construct.

Heckel: I'm not against structured programming, but you don't hire a musician because he can read music better than the other guy; you hire him

because he plays better than the other guy. The aesthetics of the algorithm is one of several factors one uses in evaluating software. The problem with the direction of structured programming is that there are more and more ways to do something wrong.

DDJ: But structured programming, modular design, the approach that Lee just described and that Paul talks about in his book, that's all language independent, right? C has perfectly good tools for writing structured programs, and you can write modular code in any language. So how, specifically, is C any "freer" than other languages?

Skiellum: C doesn't force as many assumptions on the programmer. Think about the assumptions that are forced on you, in many languages, by the compiler. For example, you are forced to use intrinsic functions. In Fortran, all the I/O is intrinsic, and the compiler makes assumptions to help that along. And there are some traps that this leads you into. Think of the Write statement; the expression within the parentheses can be quite complex, and you might expect it to be handled by the compiler, but the compiler just passes it along to the runtime package. In C, you would know better than to make that mistake; the compiler doesn't play favorites.

DDJ: In C, the compiler has no prejudice?

Skjellum: No; it neither helps nor hurts. In Fortran, Write statements are helped out by the compiler. Pascal is like that; it makes certain assumptions. Think about the Writeln command: you give it an integer argument and an object to print out. That rigidity is frustrating when you're trying to get a job done. What I want is to be able to define, say, my own I/O functions at a level where they look like the built-in elements of the language. In C, I can.

DDJ: Modula-2 is being touted as the language that Pascal should have been, but aside from its roots in Pascal and an impression that it takes some freedom away from the programmer, I think most of us are a little vague about what Modula does and doesn't do. Does it, for example, force the kinds of assumptions that Tony wants to avoid?

Marini: In our version of Modula, we

include the source code for some things that can be customized. Pointer management, the loading of overlays, how you manage interrupts: you may want to customize these things. Also, we distribute the sources for three or four library modules that are in some way environmentally dependent: the keyboard module, the display module, the RS-232 module. You can take the supplied modules as examples for designing your own. The flexibility is limited, but it's there. But the thing that makes Modula the language of the 80s is that you have separate but not independent compilation. You have a check at compile time between modules, so if you import a procedure from another module, you have to write the definition for the exporting module. When you link, you are sure that all the modules are version consistent. You have strict consistency checks between modules.

DDJ: You must admit, that sounds constraining.

Marini: If you are the only programmer around, it can be a little annoying. The Modula approach certainly uses strong discipline. But as soon as you have three programmers working on a project, this is really invaluable. Modula can handle complex programming tasks. I think that this is critical. The only other language that does this sort of thing is Ada. For people who understand and like the advantages of compile-time checks and strong typing, Modula has the chief advantages of Ada without the complexity of Ada or the unavailability of reasonable Ada compilers.

DDJ: Can you quantify the distinction between simple and complex?

Marini: I think the big difference is between the one-programmer and the multi-programmer project. That is the first step. The second step probably happens at about four or five programmers. From there up to a thousand programmers probably doesn't change very much. The big step occurs when you go above four or five programmers. Then you get into the complexity of communication within a team of software developers that cannot be based on simply informal, verbal communication. You start needing, absolutely needing, written specifications. When you have four or five, one will leave within the year. The probability is that they will not all have the same style, the same feelings, the same taste, the same choices. You need some sort of interface management. You may want a network, a common library, other little things that are not so little in the end because they consume a lot of effort.

Zappacosta: And the DoD certainly knows quite a bit about that, because they specified Ada.

Skjellum: Ada exists for people who are writing a program that has to run for 20 or 30 years and they have to be sure nothing will go wrong. They're so worried that something might go wrong in their program that they have to force excessive rigidity in the design modules. So they invented Ada. Ada has very specific rules and a tremendous instruction set. I think of it as the Language of Ten Thousand Features.

Zappacosta: In some sense you can say they went overboard; yes, maybe. But when you deal with the complexity of programming that they deal with, maybe you understand why they went overboard. I think that somehow Modula took the right ideas from the right places. It's not so complicated that you have to have the DoD pushing you to

use it. But on the other hand, it's appropriate for complex development like the people who are reprogramming air traffic control software throughout the country. If you propose to these people to use C, they cannot. They have I don't know how many people working on the project, and they are not sure that things would work together. So C is not an alternative.

Skjellum: I don't know much about Modula. And I'd like to keep it that way. But I must say that there are some nice features of Ada: more flexibility in the defining of data types, for example. DDJ: It seems that we all agree that C allows the programmer the freedom to do things in unorthodox ways, that Modula and Ada force the programmer into orthodoxy, and that the difference of opinion is over whether and when the loss of freedom is justified.

Zappacosta: The constraints of a language like Ada or Modula gain you something in functionality, but yes, the incremental gain costs something. There are two ways to go. One is toward simplicity—the pfs approach—everything is simple, manageable. With the other you get Ovation,

Framework, more complicated pieces of software. Unfortunately, for certain applications you haven't a choice. If you want to control all the airplanes in the United States' sky....

DDJ: You can't use the pfs approach? **Zappacosta:** Probably not. Logitech is positioned in a strange place. We offer Modula-2 for the microcomputer, and in the microcomputer you have the choice you don't have on larger machines: simple or complicated. Certainly we are not going after the simple applications. The fact that after the 8086 version we came out with the VAX version shows that what we have in mind are serious software developers.

DDJ: Are you saying that you have to have a VAX to be a serious software developer?

Zappacosta: Well, even for applications that eventually go on a PC, development on a mainframe is becoming more common. That's why it's harder to start a software company. You have to have a VAX; if not a VAX, you have to have a 68000-based machine. When I started programming micros in 1977, we had a CP/M machine that was the target machine and the development machine. Back then, the software couldn't be too complicated; the hardware was most important. Now things are changing.

DDJ: Software is getting more complex, requiring team programming, which in turn requires the overhead management that languages like Modula, with consistency checking and strong typing and so on, offer?

Zappacosta: Yes, but besides the number of programmers, the other parameter to measure complexity of software is the need for this software to change and evolve. If you write software and never change it, if it is a great hack and nobody can put his hands in there, while it works you can accept that level of functionality and reliability and leave it there. But there are many applications that are alive. And then it's different. If you have to put your hands into a system continuously, then you have this problem of maintenance. You have to understand the code of another guy, you have to port the system to a new machine, and that's another discriminating factor.

Skjellum: But you can do that with C. You can write machine-specific soft-

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Heckel: Yes, do you know the concept of *lint* in C? It's referred to in the C manual. The *lint* program takes a C program and it finds all the things that Pascal tends to find and it gives you a list of them. Then if you really want a program that doesn't have any of those kinds of things in it, you can fix the C program.

DDJ: There really are two philosophies here, aren't there?

Zappacosta: Well, you know, every time we present Modula we go the easy way. We say, if you plan to use Pascal, Modula is a better alternative. I think there is little discussion there: Modula is indeed the better language. But C.... Of course there is the large C market that we would like to tap, but we are careful. We are not eager to start a religious war. There are two different kinds of people who defend C. One says, I don't need another language. That's either because their requirements are not that tough and they really don't need another language, or because of ignorance. When Bill Gates told Bobo [Daniel Borel] that he didn't need another language, I think that that was ignorance. After all, considering that he made his living writing BA-SIC, it's not surprising that he sees already too much for what he needs. But he has a large company, and now even Microsoft is getting behind schedule and not completing things. Maybe it is ignorance and he is making a mistake not to consider alternatives. But other people like C as a matter of personal taste; it's an expression of personal freedom. This second group we take great care not to touch.

Skjellum: At least compared to Pascal, C is a more general-purpose language; that's why I like it.

DDJ: Even granting, for the sake of argument, that team programming is the wave of the future, still there are costs associated with every decision. What do you lose in moving from the approach of the lone programmer who codes down on the bare metal to the more rigid, Modula or Ada team programming approach?

Barnaby: It seems like to do that you've got to pretty well spec out what you're doing first. So you can divide it into pieces and design interfaces

among the pieces. Which means you have to understand what you're doing first. And that isn't how you create products that are leaps in the state of the art. You get a good idea, you divide it up very roughly into pieces, and later find that they weren't the right pieces and you redefine. I find that I have to be freewheeling. That's my experience in doing programming. WordStar grew out of a video program, and as I worked on it I kept coming up with a better way to do it.

DDJ: What one hears repeatedly is that many of the breakthrough software products are developed by programmers for themselves, not as products. Is that just folklore?

Barnaby: No. Look at Unix and C. I'm trying to get back to that approach after not having produced anything significant since WordStar and after having noticed that I wasn't approaching software designing in that way. I'm currently working with some very vague ideas that may lead to developing some new techniques to do certain things. It's creative exploration. It might or might not be incorporated into a product.

DDJ: So, Rob, you're going back to an earlier, freer approach to design. And clearly an individual approach. But Pierluigi and Giacomo, you seem to be saying that the times have outgrown that approach.

Marini: Three examples: VisiCorp, Microsoft with Windows, Digital Research with Concurrent DOS. In all three cases we have consistent out-of-schedule behavior. These were basically all companies that went from very small development groups to significantly larger development groups, and probably without project management.

Zappacosta: The fact that the micro-computer industry has been so innovative, so creative, probably comes from the fact that the past was forgotten. The industry was new; the machines were simple and small. And simple tools and smart people produced good results. They proved that there is also a side to programming that is not represented by the Mythical Man-month. But then the industry grew, the machine grew in power, and now to reach the vast majority of people you have to use a different interface. The traditional solutions used in the microcom-

puter industry are no longer adequate. In the Macintosh you have 64K of highly optimized, hand-coded software just to move the mouse. Unfortunately this trend may make creativity more difficult to foster.

Marini: Well, the market is getting more conservative. Interface compatibility is becoming a little like the story of the awful IBM keyboard.

DDJ: The awful IBM PC keyboard or the awful PCjr keyboard? IBM is backpedaling fast on the PCjr.

Marini: Maybe this is still reversible, but certainly the user interfaces to things like Lotus 1-2-3 are not easily reversible. The point is that the market builds up inertia.

DDJ: Lotus must be hoping that users can unlearn the 1-2-3 interface, or Symphony won't sell. But I guess you're saying that users now have expectations, and those expectations constrain what software designers can do with their creativity?

Marini: Yes. I suspect that the creativity is still there. Americans are so conservative. In the U.S. you can't change the color of the dollar. In Italy, we change the color of the money every three years.

DDJ

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More dBASE II Programming Techniques

by Gene Head

n my last article (DDJ, June 1984) I described a machine language subroutine called ZIP-CHK.ASM that partially validated zip codes and could be used by dBASE II using the LOAD FILE, SET CALL TO ADDRESS, and CALL VARIABLE commands. I now realize that older versions of dBASE II do not support the LOAD FILE command that facilitates the loading of machine language modules from assembled HEX files. However, most early versions of dBASE II (pre v.2.4) will support the SET CALL TO AD-DRESS and CALL VARIABLE, even though these commands may be undocumented in the user's manual.

In this article I will explain these and other undocumented features of early versions of dBASE II. I have access only to versions 2.3 and 2.4, so you should check other versions thoroughly to determine whether the feature actually works as I will describe it. I would appreciate hearing about any results you may have on versions prior to v.2.3; I will catalog these findings and pass them on in future articles.

LOAD simulator in any high level language using LOAD-HEX.CMD (listing, page 27) as a guideline.

Pre-v.2.4 Undocumented Commands

These undocumented features appear in early versions of dBASE II. PEEK (aaaaa) will return the contents of a decimal address; POKE aaaaa,nnn will fill a decimal address with a decimal value; SET CALL TO aaaaa will set the call address to a decimal value; and CALL VARIABLE will call the address as defined in the SET CALL TO command and pass the string VARIABLE, as described below.

Upon entry of the subroutine, the HL register pair points to the location of the passed variable. The variable is stored in the format LENGTH BYTE followed by the actual string characters. For example, if the variable ZIP represents the string 97330, then upon CALLing a subroutine HL will point to a series of locations with the following data bytes in hex: 05, 39, 37, 33, 33, 30. The HL pair points to the 05, indi-

"Most early versions of dBASE II will support the SET CALL TO ADDRESS and CALL VARIABLE. I will explain these and some other undocumented features of dBASE II."

In addition to the undocumented features, I have included a description of the HEX file format and a dBASE II command file that will simulate the LOAD FILE command if you can get the undocumented PEEK and POKE to work. After reviewing the format of the HEX file, you should be able to write a

cating there are five bytes in this string; 39, 37, 33, 33, 30 are the hex bytes that represent the ASCII string 97330. You can modify the string, but you must *not* increase the length of the variable. If the string becomes shorter, you should fill it with trailing blanks.

TEST(variable) will test the variable and return the following: -6 if the value is NUMERIC type, 0 if the variable does not exist, 1 if the variable is LOGICAL type, and nn (a number be-

Gene Head, 2860 NW Skyline Dr., Corvallis, OR 97330.

tween 1 and 255) to indicate the length of a STRING type variable.

Loading a HEX File

The HEX file is simply an ASCII text file that holds information about what bytes go where. The LOAD.COM program usually is used with the HEX file to create an executable COM file. The format of any HEX file is shown in the figure at right.

In a HEX file every line ends with a carriage return followed by a line feed, and every line begins with a colon. In line 1 (see figure) the two bytes following the colon (10) are two ASCII characters that represent the HEX value in the range 00 – FF (0 – 255 decimal). I will call this value the NUMBER OF BYTE-PAIRS value. We will get back to it later.

The next four bytes (A470) are ASCII characters that represent a HEX value in the range of 0000 – FFFF (00000 – 65,535 decimal). I will call this value the FIRST LOAD ADDRESS.

The next two bytes (00) are ASCII characters that are reserved. That means I don't know what they are for. However, in every HEX file I have ever looked at these two bytes are always 00, and for this article I don't think it is necessary to define them exactly. The same can be said for the last two bytes on each line (E9 in line 1). A checksum perhaps?

The intervening bytes (02, 35, 62,

:10A470002356235E22F0A401080021F2A47EFE07E9

:10A48000CACFA4BACA8BA409C37DA4237EBBCA9633

(30 lines were deleted in this example)

:10A672005756323437323638574935333035343914

:09A68200575938323038333100E9

:0000000000

<-- line 1

<-- line 2

<-- line 33

<-- line 34

<--- line 35

Figure

35, etc.) should be viewed as byte-pairs. Remember the NUMBER OF BYTE-PAIRS mentioned earlier? Well, that is exactly the number of these byte-pairs we will load into consecutive memory starting at the FIRST LOAD ADDRESS. Each of these byte-pairs are ASCII characters that represent a HEX value in the range of 00 - FF (0 - 255 decimal). Given the example of line 1, the address locations should be filled with the corresponding byte values as follows:

A470	23	A478 08	
A471	56	A479 00	
A472	23	A47A 21	
A473	5E	A47B F2	
A474	22	A47C A4	
A475	F0	A47D 7E	
A476	A4	A47E FE	
A477	01	A47F 07	

If your high-level language does notsupport a LOAD function, you can simulate one as long as you can read a textfile and PEEK at and POKE into memory. The command file LOADHEX.CMD (see the listing) was written for dBASE II. dBASE II only understands decimal numbers, and most of the code is for converting two ASCII bytes to a decimal number to be POKEd into memory. Understanding the format of the HEX file should enable you to write your own HEX loader simulator in any language.

Using LOAD-HEX.CMD as a guide, process line 1 of the HEX file. Extract the load address (position 4-7 in the string), the number of byte-pairs to POKE (position 2-3), and the individual byte-pairs (beginning at position 10). POKE each byte-pair then process the next line of the HEX file. Continue processing sequential lines until the NUMBER OF BYTE-PAIRS is equal to zero. The HEX file is now loaded into memory and ready to CALL as a machine language subroutine.

DDJ

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dBASE II Listing

LOAD-HEX.CMD

File to simulate the LOAD feature of dBASE II 2.4 in earlier versions that do not support this feature.

Verify that PEEK and POKE commands work before typing in this file and watch the syntax especially '(' & ')'.

From: Head Quarters

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(Continued on next page)

*

```
SET TALK OFF
* ---> First time initialization
* The following need be done only once
* First CREATE a file named HEXDATA.DBF with ONE
* field NAMED DATA of CHARACTER type, forty-four
* (44) characters in length.
* APPEND FROM the SUBROUTINE HEX file using the SDF option.
* If you were going to use the Subroutine ZIP-CHK.HEX file then:
*
        .USE HEXLOAD
        .APPEND FROM ZIP-CHK.HEX SDF
* <--- End of first time initialization</p>
* Each line of HEX data will be in the field named DATA
USE HEXDATA
    POSITION IN THIS STRING IS THE DECIMAL VALUE OF THE HEX CHARACTER
    (SEARCHING FOR A 'O' RETURNS O)
STORE '123456789ABCDEF' TO HEX
* ---> COMPUTE THE BASE LOCATION OF THIS LOAD (THIS FUNCTION IS OPTIONAL)
STORE STR(((@($(DATA,4,1),HEX)*16 + @($(DATA,5,1),HEX)) * 256) +;
  (@($(DATA,6,1),HEX)*16 + @($(DATA,7,1),HEX)),5) TO CALL:ADR
SET CALL TO &CALL: ADR
* <--- END OF LOCATION OPTION
DO WHILE $(DATA, 2, 2) <> '00'
  * Compute how many bytes to POKE from this line of the HEX file
  STORE (@($(DATA,2,1), HEX) *16 + @($(DATA,3,1), HEX)) TO COUNT
        * Get the starting POKE address
        STORE ((@($(DATA,4,1),HEX)*16 + @($(DATA,5,1),HEX)) * 256);
         + (@($(DATA,6,1),HEX)*16 + @($(DATA,7,1),HEX)) TO ADDRESS
        * We POKE the last BYTE-PAIR on the line of the HEX file
        * and work our way back to the first BYTE-PAIR on the line.
        DO WHILE COUNT
          STORE STR(ADDRESS+COUNT-1,5)+','+STR(@($(DATA,COUNT*2+8,1),;
            HEX) *16+@($(DATA, COUNT*2+9, 1), HEX), 3) TO BYTE
          POKE &BYTE
          STORE COUNT -1 TO COUNT
        ENDDO WHILE COUNT
  * GET NEXT LINE OF HEX DATA
  SKIP
ENDDO WHILE $ (DATA, 2, 2) <> '00'
USE
```

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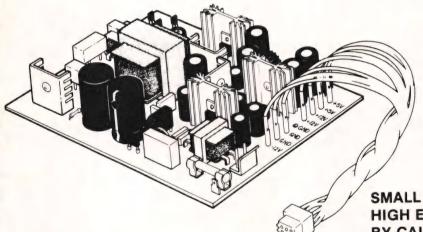
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Simple Calculations With Complex Numbers

by David D. Clark

his article will introduce you to the complex numbers and some of the methods used to perform calculations with them. Despite the title, the ideas involved are quite simple. First, however, a little background on the rational, irrational, and real numbers.

Most people are familiar with the rational numbers, whether they know it or not. Rational numbers are the numbers we use in our everyday lives, like the 25 cents we pay for a newspaper or the 1/2 teaspoon of vanilla extract required for a certain recipe. Rational numbers are those numbers that we can express as the ratio of two integers, say a/b, where the denominator is not equal to zero. The Greek Pythagorean school of mathematicians discovered another fundamental type of number. To their dismay, they found that some quantities cannot be expressed as the ratio of

Complex Numbers

The real numbers are themselves a subset of an infinitely larger set of numbers called complex numbers. To understand what complex numbers are, consider the following equation:

$$x^2 + x + 1 = 0 \tag{1}$$

Equation (1) looks innocuous enough. But, when we apply the quadratic equation in an attempt to solve the equation for the value of x, we obtain:

$$x = 1/2 \pm 1/2\sqrt{3}\sqrt{-1} \tag{2}$$

What is $\sqrt{-1}$? Good question. Clearly, no real number will work since no real number squared equals -1. Mathematicians have created a special number, usually denoted i or j, to symbolize $\sqrt{-1}$. Thus Equation (2) represents:

"The notation a + bi is a rather unfortunate historical accident. It is better to think of a complex number as an ordered pair."

two integers. The first such number they found was $\sqrt{2}$ when they tried to find the number representing the length of the diagonal through a unit square (a square with sides of length one). They showed that no such rational number exists. Soon other examples of these irrational numbers were found. Curiously, π , one of the most intensively studied of nature's fundamental constants, was not shown to be irrational until the eighteenth century. The combined rational and irrational numbers make up the set of real numbers.

David D. Clark, 246 S. Fraser St. #2, State College, PA 16801.

$$x = 1/2 + 1/2\sqrt{3}i$$

$$x = 1/2 - 1/2\sqrt{3}i$$
(3)

Such numbers are called complex numbers and consist of a real part (1/2 in Equation (3)) and an imaginary part $(1/2\sqrt{3} i)$ and $-1/2\sqrt{3} i$. They are commonly represented as:

$$x = a + bi \tag{4}$$

where a and b are real numbers. a is called the real part and bi is called the imaginary part. The real numbers are all of those complex numbers where b = 0. Complex numbers where a = 0 are called pure imaginaries. Complex

numbers are equal if and only if both the real parts and the imaginary parts are equal. Complex numbers that differ only in the sign of their imaginary parts are called conjugates. An interesting and useful property of conjugates is that, when two conjugates are multiplied, the result is always real.

The notation of Equation (4) is a rather unfortunate historical accident. It tends to confuse people on their first exposure to complex numbers. We can never actually add the real and imaginary parts as the plus sign suggests. It is better to think of a complex number simply as an ordered pair (a, bi). This concept immediately suggests a geometric representation. A plane defined by a real axis and an orthogonal imaginary axis is called an Argand plane after the Swiss-French mathematician Jean Robert Argand (1768 - 1822). The geometric interpretation of complex numbers is also attributed independently to the Norwegian surveyor Caspar Wessel (1745 - 1818). Scholars have suggested that complex numbers be renamed "normal" numbers since, in the geometric representation of such quantities, the imaginary axis is normal to the real axis. Figure 1 (below) shows how the number 3 + 4iwould be represented on such a plane. Because it is often convenient to think of complex numbers simply as points on a complex plane, we will use the terms number and point interchangeably in the following discussion.

We can also represent complex numbers with polar coordinates. In polar coordinates, a point is defined in reference to a fixed line and a point on that line, called the origin or pole. In this system, complex numbers are written as:

$$x = r(\cos\theta + i\sin\theta) = r\operatorname{Cis}\theta \tag{5}$$

where r, called the radius or modulus, represents the distance of the point from the origin, and θ , called the amplitude, represents an angle of rotation from the reference line. Figure 2 (below) demonstrates how to graph the number 5 Cis 0.9273. The two forms may be interconverted easily. The polar coordinates for x = a + bi are:

$$r = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\theta = \tan^{-1}(a/b)$$
(6)

and the rectangular coordinates for $r = \text{Cis}\theta$ are:

$$|a| = r \cos\theta$$

$$|b| = r \sin\theta$$
(7)

Since we calculate only the absolute values of a and b when converting from polar form, we must determine the actual signs of the two quantities from the quadrant in which the point falls. The quadrants are numbered in increasing order starting with quadrant I as the upper righthand part of the graph and proceeding counterclock-

Quadrant	Sign of a	Sign of b
	+	+ +
iii	_	
IV	+	-

The signs of the real (a) and imaginary (b) parts of complex numbers as a function of the quadrant in which the point appears.

Table

wise. The table (above) shows how the signs of a and b are related to the quadrant of the plane in which the point appears.

So, after a little fiddling on a calculator, we see that:

$$3 + 4i = 5 \text{ Cis } 0.9273 \tag{8}$$

and that Figures 1 and 2 represent the same number in the two coordinate systems.

Complex Arithmetic

We can do arithmetic with complex numbers just as we do with the more familiar real numbers. The four arithmetic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are very simple with complex numbers. As shown below, for multiplication and division we make use of the fact that $i^2 = -1$.

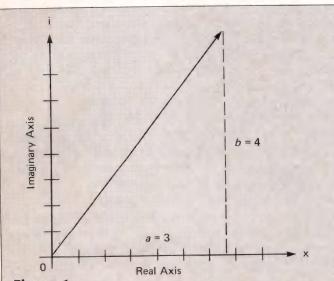


Figure 1.

Geometric representation of the complex number 3 + 4*i* in rectangular coordinates on the Argand plane.

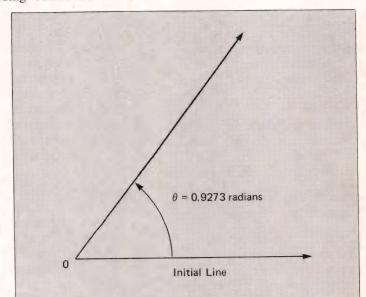


Figure 2. Geometric representation of the complex number 5 $Cis\theta$ graphed in polar coordinates.

$$(a + bi) + (c + di)$$

$$= (a + c) + (b + d)i$$
(9)

Subtraction

$$(a + bi) - (c + di)$$
 (10)
= $(a - c) + (b - d)i$

Multiplication

$$(a+bi) \times (c+di)$$

$$= a(c+di) + b(c+di)i$$

$$= (ac-bd) + (bc+ad)i$$
(11)

Division

$$\frac{a+bi}{c+di} = \frac{(a+bi) \times (c-di)}{(c+di) \times (c-di)}$$
(12)
$$= \frac{ac+bd}{c^2+d^2} + \left[\frac{bc-ad}{c^2+d^2}\right]i$$

Complex Functions

The calculation of complex functions is not much more difficult than doing complex arithmetic. One of the simplest complex functions is raising a complex number to an integer power. Polar notation makes the calculation easy:

$$(r\operatorname{Cis}\theta)^{n} = r^{n}\operatorname{Cis} n\theta \tag{13}$$

To raise e, the base of the natural logarithms, to a complex power:

$$e^{a + bi} = e^{a}e^{bi} \tag{14}$$

where, by Euler's formula:

$$e^{bi} = \cos b + i \sin b = \operatorname{Cis} b \tag{15}$$

We can confirm the veracity of this formula by expanding the exponential in a Taylor series.

Taking the natural logarithm of a complex number is also fairly straightforward. If θ is restricted such that $-\pi < \theta \le \pi$ and $x = r \operatorname{Cis}\theta$:

$$\ln(x) = \ln(r) + i\theta \tag{16}$$

To raise a complex number to a complex power, we form an analogy to the operation with real numbers. For real numbers:

$$x^{y} = e^{y \ln(x)} \tag{17}$$

If x and y are complex:

$$x^{y} = e^{y \ln(r)} e^{iy\theta} \tag{18}$$

Equation (15) suggests a way to calculate the sine and cosine of complex numbers. If x is complex:

$$e^{xi} = \cos x + i \sin x \tag{19}$$

$$e^{-xi} = \cos x - i \sin x \tag{20}$$

Adding Equations (19) and (20) and rearranging, we arrive at:

$$\cos x = \frac{e^{xi} + e^{-xi}}{2} \tag{21}$$

Subtracting Equation (20) from Equation (19) and rearranging yields:

$$\sin x = \frac{e^{xi} - e^{-xi}}{2i} \tag{22}$$

We can now perform a reasonable number of operations with complex numbers. We can build up additional simple functions by proper sequences of the operations described.

Applications

So now that we can do all this wonderful math with complex numbers, what good are they? You might not think so, but complex numbers have a variety of uses. As implied near the beginning of this article, complex numbers have a fundamental importance in the field of mathematics because the roots of polynomial equations often contain imaginary terms. Also, almost all wave phenomena are described with the aid of complex numbers, from signal analysis in electronic circuits to the wave functions used by chemists and physicists to describe the nature of matter at the atomic and molecular level.

Applications familiar to most people interested in electronics include the design and description of filters and reactive and resonant circuits. Phasor diagrams represent the real, resistive parts of the circuit, while the imaginary axis shows the imaginary or reactive part. Such a diagram is very similar to the Argand plane.

When Ohm's law is generalized to AC circuits, it has the conventional form, familiar from DC circuit analysis:

I = V/Z

where I is the current, V is the voltage, and Z is the impedance. However, the impedance varies depending upon the type of device (resistor, capacitor, or inductor) and the frequency of the signal applied to the circuit:

resistor
$$Z_R = R$$

capacitor $Z_C = -i/\omega C$
inductor $Z_L = i\omega L$

where $\omega = 2\pi f$ and f is the frequency of the applied signal in cycles per second. R is the resistance in ohms, C is the capacitance in farads, and L is the inductance in henrys.

In my own work, I use complex numbers almost daily because of their presence in the Fourier transform. The Fourier transform is most commonly used to convert data in the form of intensity vs. time into frequency vs. time data. I use an instrument called an NMR (Nuclear Magnetic Resonance) spectrometer. This instrument detects the "flipping" of nuclear spin states. This type of experiment originally involved subjecting a sample to a constant radio frequency field and a varying strong magnetic field or a constant magnetic field and varying radio frequency. Varying one of these fields took a lot of time. Modern instruments use the constant magnetic field of a superconducting magnet and a brief, intense pulse of radio energy. Since a square wave, like the applied pulse, can be built up from a series of sine waves of different frequencies, the pulse experiment is equivalent to hitting the sample with all of those frequencies at once. The FID (Free Induction Decay) is recorded as a function of time after the pulse. This data is then transformed into the frequency domain. The peaks in the transformed signal represent the frequencies at which nuclear spins flipped.

Fourier transforms are used in all types of signal analysis applications, such as digital filtering and spectral analysis. The DFT (Discrete Fourier Transform) of x(n) is defined as:

$$X(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x(n) \exp(i2\pi nk/N)$$

$$= 0$$

$$k = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

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The inverse DFT is:

$$x(n) = \frac{N-1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} X(k) \exp(i2\pi nk/N);$$

$$k = 0$$

$$n = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$$

We can also use the Fourier transform to analyze an interesting signal based on a complex function, the frequency-modulated wave related to FM radio transmission:

$$x(k) = \exp[i(ak + b\cos ck)]$$

Analysis of this type of signal reveals a sharp central peak and a number of sidebands whose position and intensities are influenced by the values of the constants a, b, and c.

Complex numbers are also used extensively in the study of electromagnetic phenomena. Calculation of radiated power, radiation pressure, and design of waveguides are good examples of this use.

Computer Implementation

Given all that you can do with complex numbers, the next step is getting your computer to help. It's easy to do in Fortran since COMPLEX is one of the fundamental data types available. In addition, the Fortran library has a large number of functions that operate with COMPLEX variables. However, I have an intense dislike of Fortran, and the Fortran compilers I have available for my microcomputer do not support the COMPLEX data type. Since I do like Pascal, I wrote the routines I wanted in that language.

Listing One (page 36) is a UCSD Pascal unit called Complex Arithmetic that implements the operations discussed above. First, a public data type called Complex is declared. Complex numbers will be represented by this data type in programs that make use of the unit. It consists of a record containing two fields. The Re field represents the real coefficient, while the Im field represents the imaginary coefficient. All complex arguments and results are in rectangular coordinates, although some of the calculations use polar coordinates.

This approach has some disadvantages. The primary disadvantage is that you must build up equations from

successive procedure and function calls. This is because Pascal does not allow functions to return composite values; it is not possible to write routines that return results of data type Complex. It would also be nice if you could overload the arithmetic operators to use Complex data types. You can do it in Ada, but that's another story.

The four arithmetic operations are straightforward implementations of Equations (9) through (12). The Polar routine, which converts rectangular coordinates to polar coordinates, requires some explanation. Because of the way the p-System handles certain exceptional numerical conditions, a few precautions had to be taken when coding the routine. The first two conditionals are present to prevent underflow when squaring the real and imaginary parts of the argument. Squaring numbers very close to zero can produce a number too close to zero for the computer to represent. For example, squaring 10-20 yields 10-40, which is too small for many systems to handle. This is called underflow. When it happens on my machine, a runtime error occurs and the program is aborted. The two conditional statements detect such a situation before the damage is done and prevent an error by setting the coefficient to zero (since Arg is passed by value, the reassignment only has effect while within procedure Polar). Squaring zero does not cause any problems.

The calculation of the amplitude is a little trickier. While the ATan function is very robust (you can't hurt it, no matter what argument you hit it with), division is not quite so resilient. Division can cause problems in a couple of ways. First, division by zero is certain death. Second, dividing a very large number by a very small number can cause overflow. For example, $10^{20}/10^{-20} = 10^{40}$. There is a way to detect such a situation before it happens. Since:

$$abs(b)/abs(a) = e^{(ln(abs(b)) - ln(abs(a)))}$$

we can check the relative magnitudes of a and b before doing the actual division. If an infinite quantity (to the computer) is about to be calculated, signs are checked and an appropriate value is assigned directly. (The ATan function approaches $\pi/2$ as its argument increases without bound in the positive di-

rection. It tends to $-\pi/2$ as the argument decreases toward negative infinity.) All this checking makes Polar an expensive procedure in terms of execution time. If you don't need all of these safeguards, you can reduce the procedure to the two statements:

Modulus := Sqrt(Sqr(Arg.Re) + Sqr (Arg.Im));

Amplitude := ATan(Arg.Im/Arg.Re);

(A note to p-System users: Some early versions of the interpreter have Ln functions that do not always return a result of the correct sign.)

The CToPower, CExp, and CLn procedures are almost straight transliterations of Equations (13) through (16). The procedures CToC, CSin, and CCos are examples of how equations involving complex numbers can be built up one operation at a time. Other functions, such as taking complex powers of real numbers, can be built up by calling these procedures with appropriate arguments. For example, to raise 5.3 to the 7.0 + 3.0i power, use CToC with Arg1 = 5.3 + 0.0i and Arg2 = 7.0 + 3.0i.

Listing Two (page 42) is a typical application for complex numbers, a test program for FFT (Fast Fourier Transform) functions. The program generates a function with an analytically known DFT, transforms it, compares the calculated transform with the analytic transform, then reverses the process. The calculated inverse transform is then compared with the original function. The function generated is:

$$x(n) = Q^n n = 0,1,\ldots,N-1$$

and its DFT is:

$$X(k) = (1 - Q^{N})/(1 - QW^{k})$$

 $k = 0,1,...,N-1$

where $W = \exp(-i2\pi/N)$ and Q is the complex constant 0.9 + 0.3i. In the program, N = 64 so the transform is performed on 64 complex points.

The procedure that performs the actual calculation of the FFT is "included" from the file CURFFT.TEXT,

shown in Listing Three (page 46). That way you can test several different FFT routines using the same main program. Just create your new Fourea procedure and stuff it in a file called CURFFT.TEXT. As stated in the listing, this is not a particularly efficient FFT procedure, but it has the virtue of simplicity (for an FFT calculation anyway) and illustrates a "real life" application of complex numbers.

The output at the end of Listing Three shows the results of running the FFT testing program. A large difference between the calculated transforms and the analytically known values for the transforms indicates that there is probably an error in the Fourea procedure being tested.

Summary

Complex numbers have been introduced in relation to the more familiar rational and real number systems. Complex numbers consist of a real part and an imaginary part. The imaginary part is so named because one of its factors is $\sqrt{-1}$, more commonly denoted simply as *i*. A geometrical interpretation of such numbers has been described in which complex numbers represent points on a complex plane, called an Argand plane. The points can be plotted in rectangular or polar coordinates, and the two coordinate systems can be easily interconverted.

Complex numbers have an associated algebra, just like the rational and real numbers. The operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, as well as the calculation of some common functions of complex numbers, have been explained. A UCSD Pascal unit called Complex Arithmetic, which implements these calculations in a specific programming language, has been described, as well as an example program to calculate fast Fourier transforms using complex arithmetic.

In addition to signal analysis and Fourier analysis, complex numbers are used in the mathematics of electronics (e.g., filters and reactive and resonant circuits). Phasor diagrams consist of a real part, the resistive part, and an imaginary part, the reactive part. The wave functions used by chemists and physicists in the study of quantum mechanics also make use of the properties of complex

numbers. And now, so can you.

References

- Crandall, R. E., Pascal Applications for the Sciences (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1984). A very good "how to" book on the use of computers in the sciences. It contains a large number of small Pascal programs for solving problems in several areas of the physical and biological sciences.
- Dence, J. B., Mathematical Techniques in Chemistry (John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1975).
 This book is invaluable to chemists. It describes a wide range of mathematical techniques as applied to chemical problems.
- 3. Digital Signal Processing Committee of the IEEE Acoustics, Speech, and Signal Processing Society, Programs for Digital Signal Processing (IEEE Press, 1979). This book contains lots of very fancy programs for use in various areas of signal processing. The discussion of the theory of such calculations is minimal. All the programs are in Fortran. The program in Listings Two and Three was derived from a simple demonstration program in this book.
- 4. Horowitz, P., and W. Hill, The Art of Electronics (Cambridge University Press, 1980). This book contains a good introduction to the use of complex quantities in the design and description of electronic signal processing circuitry such as filters and resonant and power circuits. It is also an excellent introduction to electronics in general.
- Kousourou, G., S. N. Sonsky, and F. Scalzo, An Introduction to Technical Mathematics with Computing (Petrocelli Books, Inc., 1979). A textbook of elementary mathematics required in most technical work. It has a good introduction to complex numbers and their manipulation. Lots of problems and worked examples.
- Lorrain, P., and D. R. Corson, Electromagnetic Fields and Waves (W. H. Freeman and Company, San Francisco, 1970). Some very heavy reading on the theoretical aspects of electromagnetic phenomena. Complex quantities permeate the mathematics of this book.

DDI

(Listings begin on page 36)

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Calculations (Text begins on page 30) Listing One

```
{xL PRINTER:}
UNIT ComplexArithmetic;
{ data type and procedures for performing complex arithmetic }
  INTERFACE
    TYPE Complex = RECORD
                      Re : Real;
                      Im : Real
                    END { of RECORD };
    PROCEDURE CAdd(VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex);
    { adds "Arg1" and "Arg2" and returns the sum in "Result" }
    PROCEDURE CSub(VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex);
    { subtracts "Arg2" from "Arg1" and returns the difference in "Result" }
    PROCEDURE CMult(VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex);
    { multiplies "Argl" and "Arg2" and returns the product in "Result" }
   PROCEDURE CDiv(VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex);
    { divide "Arg1" by "Arg2" and returns the quotient in "Result" }
    PROCEDURE Polar(Arg: Complex; VAR Modulus, Amplitude: Real);
    { converts a Complex number "Arg" in rectangular form to Polar form }
   PROCEDURE CToPower(VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex; Power: Integer);
   { raises "Arg" to the positive integral "Power" and returns the answer in "Result" }
   PROCEDURE CExp(VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex);
    { raises e to the "Arg" and returns the answer in "Result" }
   PROCEDURE CLn(VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex);
    { takes the natural logarithm of "Arg" and returns the answer in
     "Result" }
   PROCEDURE CToC(VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex);
   { raise Complex number "Arg1" to Complex Power "Arg2" }
   PROCEDURE CSin(VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex);
   { takes the sine of "Arg" and returns it in "Result }
   PROCEDURE CCos(VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex);
   { takes the cosine of "Arg" and returns it in "Result }
 IMPLEMENTATION
   CONST LN_MAX_REAL = 87.49823353; { ln(1.0e38) }
         PI_OVER_2 = 1.570796327; \{ pi/2.0 \}
         CLOSEST
                     = 1E-19;
                                   { sqrt(1.0e-38 }
PROCEDURE CAdd{VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex};
BEGIN { CAdd }
  Result.Re := Argl.Re + Arg2.Re;
```



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Deref	19	CNC	31	
Matmult	42	115	N/A	

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Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) Listing One

```
Result. Im := Argl. Im + Arg2. Im
END { of CAdd };
PROCEDURE CSub{VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex};
BEG IN { CSub }
  Result.Re := Argl.Re - Arg2.Re;
  Result. Im := Argl. Im - Arg2. Im
END { of CSub };
PROCEDURE CMult{VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex};
BEG IN { CMult }
  Result.Re := Argl.Re*Arg2.Re - Argl.Im*Arg2.Im;
  Result. Im := Argl. Im*Arg2. Re + Argl. Re*Arg2. Im
END { of CMult };
PROCEDURE CDiv{VAR Result: Complex; Argl, Arg2: Complex};
VAR
      Denom: Real;
BEGIN { CDiv }
  Denom := Sqr(Arg2.Re) + Sqr(Arg2.Im);
  Result.Re := (Argl.Re*Arg2.Re + Argl.Im*Arg2.Im)/Denom;
  Result. Im := (Argl. Im*Arg2.Re - Argl. Re*Arg2. Im)/Denom
END { of CDiv };
PROCEDURE Polar {Arg: Complex; VAR Modulus, Amplitude: Real};
BEGIN { Polar }
 WITH Arg DO BEGIN
       IF Abs(Re) < CLOSEST THEN
          Re := 0.0;
       IF Abs(Im) < CLOSEST THEN
          Im := 0.0;
       Modulus := Sqrt(Sqr(Re) + Sqr(Im));
       IF Im = 0.0 THEN
          Amplitude := 0.0
       ELSE IF Re = 0.0 THEN
          IF Im > 0.0 THEN
             Amplitude := PI OVER 2
          ELSE
             Amplitude := -PI OVER 2
       ELSE IF (Ln(Abs(Im)) - Ln(Abs(Re)) > LN_MAX_REAL) THEN
          IF Re > 0.0 THEN
          IF Im > 0.0 THEN
             Amplitude := PI_OVER_2
          ELSE
             Amplitude := -PI_OVER 2
       ELSE
          IF Im > 0.0 THEN
             Amplitude := -PI_OVER_2
          ELSE
             Amplitude := PI_OVER 2
    ELSE
```

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Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) **Listing One**

```
Amplitude := ATan(Im/Re)
   END { of WITH Arg }
 END { of Polar };
 PROCEDURE CToPower{VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex; Power: Integer}
VAR
       I: Integer;
       Modulus, Amplitude, NewMod, PowAmp: Real;
BEGIN { CToPower }
   IF Power = 0 THEN BEGIN
      Result.Re := 1.0;
      Result. Im := 0.0
  END
  ELSE BEGIN
        Polar(Arg, Modulus, Amplitude);
        NewMod := 1;
        IF Power > 0 THEN
           FOR I := 1 TO Power DO NewMod := NewMod*Modulus
       ELSE
          FOR I := 1 TO Abs(Power) DO NewMod := NewMod/Modulus;
       PowAmp := Power*Amplitude;
       Result.Re := NewMod*Cos(PowAmp);
       Result. Im := NewMod*Sin(PowAmp)
  END
END { of CToPower };
PROCEDURE CExp{VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex};
      Expo: Real;
VAR
BEGIN { CExp }
  Expo := Exp(Arg.Re);
  Result. Re := Expo*Cos(Arg. Im);
  Result. Im := Expo*Sin(Arg. Im)
END { of CExp };
PROCEDURE CLn{VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex};
VAR
      Modulus, Amplitude: Real;
BEGIN { CLn }
  Polar(Arg, Modulus, Amplitude);
  Result. Re := Ln(Modulus);
  Result. Im := Amplitude
END { of CLn };
PROCEDURE CToC{VAR Result: Complex; Arg1, Arg2: Complex};
VAR
      LogPart, Expo: Complex;
BEGIN { CToC }
  CLn(LogPart, Argl);
  CMult(Expo, Arg2, LogPart);
  CExp(Result, Expo)
END { of CToC };
```

```
PROCEDURE CSin (VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex);
   VAR Expl, Exp2, Partl, Part2, Sum, Divisor: Complex;
   BEGIN { CSin }
                                 { z*i }
     Expl.Re := -Arg. Im;
     Expl. Im := Arg. Re;
                                 { exp(zi) }
     CExp(Partl, Expl);
                                 \{-z*i\}
     Exp2. Re := Arg. Im;
     Exp2. Im := -Arg. Re;
     CExp(Part2, Exp2);
                                 { exp(-zi) }
                                 \{ \exp(zi) - \exp(-zi) \}
     CSub(Sum, Part1, Part2);
     Divisor.Re := 0.0;
     Divisor. Im := 2.0;
     CDiv(Result, Sum, Divisor) { (exp(zi) - exp(-zi))/(2i) }
   END { of CSin };
   PROCEDURE CCos{VAR Result: Complex; Arg: Complex};
   VAR Expl, Exp2, Partl, Part2, Sum, Divisor: Complex;
   BEGIN { CCos }
                                  { z*i }
     Expl.Re := -Arg. Im;
     Expl. Im := Arg. Re;
                                  { exp(zi) }
     CExp(Partl, Expl);
                                  \{-z*i\}
     Exp2.Re := Arg. Im;
     Exp2. Im := -Arg. Re;
                                  { exp(-zi) }
      CExp(Part2, Exp2);
                                  \{ \exp(zi) + \exp(-zi) \}
      CAdd(Sum, Partl, Part2);
      Divisor.Re := 2.0;
      Divisor. Im := 0.0;
      CDiv(Result, Sum, Divisor) { (exp(zi) + exp(-zi))/(2) }
    END { of CCos };
BEGIN { ComplexArithmetic }
```

End Listing One

(Listing two begins on next page)

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END { of ComplexArithmetic }.

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Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) **Listing Two**

```
Program FFTTest(Input, Output, Prn);
 {*
 **
          This program generates a function to test various fast Fourier
**
    transform programs. As currently implemented, the program compiles the
 **
    routine to be tested in-line with the test program.
    accomplished through the use of the "include" file mechanism of the
**
**
    compiler. The routine to be tested should be in a file called
    "CURFFT.TEXT". The routine's heading should be as follows:
**
**
**
         Procedure Fourea(
                              numPoints : Integer;
++
                              whichWay : Direction;
**
                          Var f
                                        : CmplxArray);
**
**
    where the types Direction and CmplxArray are as declared below.
**
**
         The program computes the function A^I, I = 0, 1, ... MAXPOINTS - 1.
**
         discrete Fourier transform of this function is also computed. The
**
    procedure Fourea is called to compute the fast Fourier transform in the
**
    forward direction.
                       This call is then repeated, but for the reverse
**
    direction. The theoretical transform is then compared to the computed
**
    transform and the calculated reverse transform is compared to the
**
    original function. The maximum difference of each comparison is then
    printed. A large maximum difference probably indicates a program error.
**
**
**
         The Unit ComplexArithmetic is used to perform the arithmetic on
    complex numbers required by the algorithm. The value of MAXPOINTS is
**
**
    set at 64 because it is also a power of 8. This is important because
**
    the program is also intended to test a version of Fourea optimized for
**
    data arrays of 512 complex points.
**
**
    Based on a Fortran program by C. M. Rader
**
    MIT Lincoln Laboratory, Lexington MA
**
**
    Written by David D. Clark
**
    26-Mar-83
*}
Uses {$U MATH.LIBRARY} ComplexArithmetic;
Const MAXPOINTS
                  = 64;
                                        { size of the transformed array }
     TWOPI
                 = 6.2831853;
                                       { 2 * pi }
      PRINTFILE
                 - 'PRINTER:';
                                       { output device file name for results
Type Direction
                 = (Forward, Reverse); { note the spelling }
                 = File of Char;
      CharFile
     CmplxArray = Array [1..MAXPOINTS] of Complex;
Var
     I
                 : Integer;
                                  { general purpose index variable }
     DD,
     D1,
     D2,
     GG,
     G1,
     G2,
TwoPiDivMax : Real;
                                  { will be TWOPI/MAXPOINTS }
OneZero,
                                  { 1.0 + 0.0*i (complex number 1) }
A,
D,
```

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Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) **Listing Two**

```
E,
      W,
      Tem.
      TemTem
                   : Complex:
      В,
                                          { complex data arrays }
      C,
      Qb
                   : CmplxArray;
      PrnFile
                  : CharFile;
                                          { print out file }
   Procedure PrintOut( numPoints: Integer;
                       Var f : CmplxArray;
                       Var dev
                               : CharFile );
      Print out the numPoint members of complex array f on dev
   *}
       i,
   Var
       j : Integer;
   Begin { PrintOut }
      WriteLn(dev);
      For i := 1 to numPoints Div 2 Do Begin
          i := 2*i - 1;
          WriteLn(dev, '(', j : 2, ')', f[j ].re: 14, f[j ].im: 14, (', (j + 1): 2, ')', f[j + 1].re: 14, f[j + 1].im: 14)
      End;
      WriteLn(dev);
      WriteLn(dev)
   End { of PrintOut }:
{ now include the FFT procedure }
{$I CURFFT.TEXT}
Begin { FFTTest }
   { some initialization }
  OneZero.re := 1.0; OneZero.im := 0.0;
  TwoPiDivMax := TWOPI/MAXPOINTS;
  W.re := Cos(TwoPiDivMax); W.im := -Sin(TwoPiDivMax);
  A.re := 0.9; A.im := 0.3;
  ReWrite(PrnFile, PRINTFILE);
  { Calculate and print function A^I, I := 0, 1, ... (MAXPOINTS - 1) }
  B[1] := OneZero;
  Qb[1] := OneZero;
  For I := 2 to MAXPOINTS Do Begin
      CToPower(B[I], A, I - 1);
      Qb[I] := B[I]
WriteLn(PrnFile, 'Complex input sequence:');
PrintOut(MAXPOINTS, Qb, PrnFile);
{ Calculate and print the theorectical discrete Fourier transform }
CToPower(Tem, A, MAXPOINTS);
CSub(D, OneZero, Tem);
For I := 1 to MAXPOINTS Do Begin
```

```
CToPower(TemTem, W, I - 1);
    CMult(Tem, A, TemTem);
    CSub(E, OneZero, Tem);
    CDiv(C[I], D, E)
WriteLn(PrnFile, 'Theoretical discrete Fourier transform: ');
PrintOut(MAXPOINTS, C, PrnFile);
{ Calculate and print the fast Fourier transform of the function }
Fourea(MAXPOINTS, Forward, B);
WriteLn(PrnFile, "Fourea" generated discrete Fourier transform: );
PrintOut(MAXPOINTS, B, PrnFile);
{ Find the maximum difference }
DD := 0.0;
For I := 1 to MAXPOINTS Do Begin
    D1 := Abs(C[I].re - B[i].re);
    D2 := Abs(C[I].im - B[I].im);
    If D1 > DD Then
        If D2 > D1 Then
           DD := D2
           DD := D1
    Else If D2 > DD then
        DD := D2
End;
{ Calculate and print the inverse transform }
Fourea(MAXPOINTS, Reverse, C); WriteLn(PrnFile, '"Fourea" generated inverse descrete Fourier transform: ');
PrintOut(MAXPOINTS, C, PrnFile);
{ Find the maximum difference }
GG := 0.0;
For I := 1 to MAXPOINTS Do Begin
     Gl := Abs(Qb[I].re - C[i].re);
     G2 := Abs(Qb[I].im - C[I].im);
     If G1 > GG Then
         If G2 > G1 Then
            GG := G2
         Else
            GG := G1
     Else If G2 > GG then
        GG := G2
    End;
    { Print out the maximum differences }
    WriteLn(PrnFile, 'Max diff between theor. and Fourea DFT is ', DD); WriteLn(PrnFile, 'Max diff between orig. and inverse is ', GG)
 End { of FFTTest }.
```

End Listing Two

(Listing three begins on next page)

Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) Listing Three

```
Procedure Fourea(
                      numPoints : Integer;
                      whichWay : Direction;
                  Var f
                                 : CmplxArray);
{*
**
          Performs a Cooley-Tukey type fast Fourier transform.
**
**
         f is a one dimensional complex array whose length, numPoints, is
**
       power of two. which Way determines in which direction the transform
    will be performed. If it is Forward, then is Inverse is set to -l and
**
**
    a forward transform is carried out. If which way has a value of Reverse,
**
    then is Inverse is set to I and a reverse transform is calculated.
**
         transform[j] := sum(f[i]*w^((i-1)*(j-1))), where i and j run from
**
    l to numPoints and w := exp(isInverse*2*pi*sqrt(-1)/numPoints). The program also computes the inverse transform, for which the defining
**
**
    expression is: inverse DFT := (1/\text{numPoints})*\text{sum}(f[i]*\text{w}^((i-1)*(j-1))).
**
**
**
         Run time is proportional to numPoints*Log2(numPoints) rather than
**
    to numPoints^2 for the classical discrete Fourier transform.
**
**
         This is a very short version of the FFT and is only intended for
**
    demonstration purposes. Programs are available which run faster and
**
    are not restricted to numbers of points that are powers of two or to one
**
    dimensional arrays.
*}
Var is Inverse : Integer;
   Function PowerOfTwo(
                           numPoints : Integer) : Boolean;
   **
       Determine if numPoints is an integer power of 2.
   *}
   Var
         modulo : Integer;
   Begin { PowerOfTwo }
      PowerOfTwo := True;
      modulo := 0:
      While (modulo = 0) and (numPoints >= 2) Do Begin
            modulo := numPoints Mod 2;
            If modulo = 0 Then
               numPoints := numPoints Div 2
            Else
               PowerOfTwo := False
      End
   End { of PowerOfTwo };
  Procedure Scramble( numPoints : Integer;
                       Var f
                                     : CmplxArray);
  {*
   **
       Put the data in bit reversed order.
  * }
       i,
 Var
             : Integer;
        m
        temp : Complex;
```

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Calculations (Listing Continued, text begins on page 30) **Listing Three**

```
Begin { Scramble }
   j := 1;
   For i := 1 to numPoints Do Begin
If i < j Then Begin
           temp := f[j];
           f[j] := f[i];
           f[i] := temp
       End:
       m := numPoints Div 2;
       If m < j Then
          While m < j Do Begin
                 j := j - m;
                 m := (m + 1) Div 2
           End;
       j := j + m
End { of Scramble };
Procedure Butterflies(
                           numPoints,
                           isInverse : Integer;
                       Var f
                                      : CmplxArray);
{*
**
    Calculate the butterflies for the bit reversed data of an FFT.
**
    Normalize if a reverse FFT is performed.
*}
Const pi = 3.1415927;
Var
      mMax.
      step,
      index,
      m,
      i,
            : Integer;
      j
      theta: Real;
      W,
      cn,
      temp
           : Complex;
Begin { Butterflies }
   mMax := 1;
   While numPoints > mMax Do Begin
         step := 2*mMax;
         For m := 1 to mMax Do Begin
             theta := pi*(isInverse*(m - 1))/mMax;
             w.re := Cos(theta); w.im := Sin(theta);
             For i := 1 to ((numPoints - m) Div step) + 1 Do Begin
                 index := m + ((i - 1)*step);
                 j := index + mMax;
                 CMult(temp, w, f[j]);
                  CSub(f[j], f[index], temp);
                  CAdd(f[index], f[index], temp)
             End
         End;
         mMax := step
  If is Inverse = 1 Then Begin
      cn.re := numPoints; cn.im := 0.0;
      For i := 1 to numPoints Do
```

```
CDiv(f[i], f[i], cn)
       End
   End { of Butterflies };
Begin { Fourea }
   WriteLn('Fourea');
   If PowerOfTwo(numPoints) Then Begin
       If whichWay = Forward Then
          isInverse := -1
       Else
          isInverse := 1;
       Scramble(numPoints, f);
       Butterflies(numPoints, isInverse, f)
   End
   Else Begin
       WriteLn('The number of points in the array was not a power of two.');
       WriteLn('No transformation performed.')
   End
End { of Fourea };
"Truncated Output from the Program"
Complex input sequence:
                                                         3.00000E-1
                                   (2)
                                           9.00000E-1
                       0.00000
          1.00000
                                                         7.02000E-1
                                           4.86000E-1
                                    (4)
                     5.40000E-1
(3)
       7.20000E-1
                                                         2.82034E-2
        3.80692E-2
                     1.86474E-2
                                    (62)
                                           2.86681E-2
(61)
                                                       3.57872E-2
                     3.39835E-2
                                           5.41117E-3
                                    (64)
(63)
        1.73402E-2
Theoretical discrete Fourier transform:
                                              1.65441
                                                            4.19275
                                  (2)
                        2.98377
           1.10736
(1)
                                                            7.26182
                                            1.58381E1
          3.60049
                        6.69406
                                    (4)
(3)
                                            6.98674E-1
                                                            1.54663
        6.55765E-1
                                    (62)
                        1.31934
(61)
                                                            2.29593
                                    (64)
                                            8.81321E-1
                        1.85433
        7.65931E-1
 (63)
 "Fourea" generated discrete Fourier transform:
                                               1.65441
                                                            4.19275
                        2.98377
                                    (2)
           1.10736
 (1)
                                    (4)
                                             1.58380E1
                                                            7.26169
                        6.69405
 (3)
           3.60051
                                                            1.54663
                        1.31934
                                    (62)
                                            6.98693E-1
 (61)
        6.55781E-1
                                                            2.29592
                                            8.81363E-1
                        1.85433
                                    (64)
        7.65960E-1
 (63)
 "Fourea" generated inverse descrete Fourier transform:
                                                         3.00002E-1
                                            8.99998E-1
                                    (2)
                      1.02073E-6
 (1)
                                            4.85999E-1
                                                         7.02002E-1
        7.19999E-1
                      5.40002E-1
                                    (4)
 (3)
                                            2.86679E-2
                                                          2.82035E-2
        3.80697E-2
                      1.86473E-2
                                    (62)
 (61)
                                                        3.57877E-2
                                            5.40911E-3
        1.73393E-2
                      3.39839E-2
                                    (64)
 (63)
```

Max diff between theor. and Fourea DFT is 1.24931E-4 Max diff between orig. and inverse is 3.81470E-6

GREP.C

A Unix-Like, Generalized, Regular Expression Parser in C

by Allen Holub

"The power of grep lies in its use of regular expressions as pattern templates rather than explicit strings." rep is the Unix pattern finder: it goes into a file or group of files and finds text patterns matching a symbolic regular expression. Grep is surprisingly useful. With it you can find a subroutine lost in one of the 50 modules making up the giant program that you're working on. You can find the misspelled name that your linker says is an undeclared function. Grep can number all the lines in a file or list all procedure declarations in a C program, as well as perform any of innumerable other things.

A good example of grep's utility is the history of this version, grep.c. I started out wanting to expand the patternsearching capabilities of Ed Reams' editor, RED (DDJ No. 81). I wanted to add a pattern-searching capability similar to that of the Berkeley Unix editor, vi. So I set about converting into C the pattern-matching algorithms in Software Tools in Pascal by Kernighan and Plauger (Addison-Wesley, 1981, Ch. 5).

Along the way I ran into difficulties. My version of RED was written in BDS C, which has a nonstandard I/O library. I wanted to translate the editor over to standard C so I could port it between different compilers and different machines. To do the translation, I needed to find all calls to the nonstandard library routines. So I turned my pattern matcher into a real program, linked the BDS version of RED without linking the library modules (to get a list of the library routines that RED used), then used grep to search all the modules of RED for procedure calls to the library functions.

The program presented in this article is most of the Unix grep. The only omissions are those command line switches that are Unix dependent, the -x switch (which performs an exact line match), and the +, ?, and () regular expression operators (which are not essential).

The power of grep lies in its use of regular expressions as pattern templates rather than explicit strings. For example, the grep command line:

grep
$$[a - z][a - z]^*[\s\t]^*.*([^;]^*)[^;]^*$$

mod 1.c mod 2.c mod 3.c

creates a cross reference of a large C program. The three files mod1.c, mod2.c, and mod3.c are searched. Grep's output will show all subroutine declarations along with the name of the file in which the subroutine is declared. The regular expression is interpreted as follows: beginning of line (^), followed by one or more occurrences of any character in the range a to z ([a -\lambda z][a -z]*), followed by either a space or a tab repeated zero or more times ([\s\t]*), followed by any character repeated zero or more times (.*), followed by an open parenthesis ((), followed by any character except a semicolon repeated zero or more times ([^;]*), followed by a close parenthesis ()), followed by any character except a semicolon repeated zero or more times ([^;]*), followed by end of line (\$).

Allen Holub, Software Engineering Consultants, P.O. Box 5679, Berkeley, CA 94705.

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You could also use grep to get a count of the number of procedures found and either have the matching lines printed out with line numbers or have all the lines not matching the pattern printed by including various command line switches in the program invocation.

Regular Expressions

Regular expressions are a way of representing text patterns in a symbolic shorthand. The * and ? that CP/M uses are examples of a crude regular expression syntax. The symbols grep uses to define regular expressions fall into five categories:

- · Symbols that match a specific character
- Symbols that match any character
- Symbols that match a character's position on the line
- Symbols (called "character classes") that match any of a set of characters or anything except a set of characters
- Symbols that let you match the previous symbol any number of times (called "closure")

The rules for constructing regular expressions are given on the excerpted manual page (Figure 1, page 53). Some examples follow.

a.d

matches any word containing an "a," followed by any character, followed by a "d." This expression will match the substrings "and" in "and" and "ard" in "aardvark"; this means that grep will print any line containing either word, along with any other match.

^a.d

will match the same strings but only if they occur at the beginning of the line. No characters, including spaces and tabs, are allowed in front of the "a."

a.d\$

will match the same strings if they occur at the end of the line. No character, including spaces and tabs, can follow the "d."

^\$

will match a beginning of line, followed by an end of line; this means that it will match all lines containing nothing but a newline character.

an*d

will match any word containing an "a," followed by an "n" repeated zero or more times. This expression will match "add" as well as "and."

will match any character repeated any number of times. This expression will always succeed. For example, an invocation of grep with the line

grep - n.* (filename)

will output every line in the file preceded by its line number.

99*

will match one (rather than zero) or more occurrences of the letter "a." For example,

[abc]

defines a "character class." A character class matches any one of the characters surrounded by the square brackets. This particular character class will match an "a," "b," or "c" in the corresponding position on the line.

who[ms]e

matches "who," followed immediately by either an "m" or an "s," followed by an "e." That is, the words "whomever" and "whose" will be matched, but the word "whole" will not. Character class definitions may be abbreviated by using a dash. For example,

[a-k]

will be treated as if you had said [abcdefghijk]. Similarly,

[0 - 9A - Fa - f]

will be expanded to [0123456789ABCDEFabcdef]. This last character class will match any single hexadecimal digit. That is, any digit or any letter between "a" and "f" will be matched. Note that you have to say "A – Fa – f" to match both upper and lower case.

0x[0-9a-fA-F][0-9a-fA-f]*

will match all lines in a C program that contain hexadecimal numbers. This regular expression matches the characters 0x, followed by any of the characters 0123456789abc defABCDEF repeated one or more times. A "negative character class" (one that matches any character except those listed) may be defined by using ^ as the first character following the [. For example,

f[^o]

will find all occurrences of an "f" not followed by an "o." Be careful here with patterns at the end of line. Although [^o] matches any character that is not an "o," a lone "f" at the end of line will not match the pattern because the end of line is not a character – it is a position. f[^o]*\$ or f\$|f[^o] will find an "f" at the end of line.

$[a-zA-Z]f\backslash s | [A-Z][A-Z]^*\backslash s$

will match all lines containing words ending in "f" or all lines containing words composed only of upper-case characters. That is, if either of the regular expressions separated by the are satisfied, a match is returned.

If you need to match a character that is used as a symbol in the regular expression, precede it with a backslash (\). For example, * will match an asterisk, and \\ will match the backslash itself. Certain escape sequences (as these backslash sequences are called) are predefined; in particular, \s matches a space and \t matches a tab (control-I).

These are needed because of the irregularities of certain compilers and operating systems. A space in the command line will make many command-line interpreters break up the expression into two arguments. A tab in the command line will confuse CP/M utterly: it won't execute your program at all. Other escape sequences are defined on the manual page (Figure 1 below).

Technical Description

The routines in tools.c differ from those in *Software Tools* in three important ways. First, the routines were translated into C. Second, all references to array indexes were replaced with pointers in the interest of increased execution speed. Finally, the data structure used for the pattern template was changed significantly.

The reasons for this last change are somewhat complex. Grep breaks up the input expression into a pattern template, where each element of the template represents a single logical portion of the expression. For example, the expression $[\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{z}]\mathbf{x}$.*

requires four elements in the pattern template. One element is required for the character class ("[a-z]"), one element for the literal character match ("x"), one element to match any character (the ".") and one element for the closure (the "*"). Processing the expression is much easier once it has been functionally divided in this way.

Kernighan and Plauger use a single ASCII string as their pattern template, and this data structure causes several problems. Varying numbers of characters are required to represent different types of elements in the template. To advance through the template, you need a subroutine that analyzes the current element and then advances the appropriate number of characters; this subroutine adds unnecessary overhead to the pattern-recognizing parts of grep. By replacing the ASCII string with a linked list of structures (which is how the templates are represented in my version of grep),

you can advance to the next pattern with a single assignment operation.

Grep can be broken up into three distinct parts:

- (1) Get the regular expression(s), the file list, and any switches from the command line.
- (2) Translate the expression(s) into a pattern template.
- (3) Go through the input files one line at a time, calling the routine matchs(), and produce the appropriate output on finding a match.

Getting the Expressions

Grep is divided into two main modules: grep.c and tools.c. Grep.c does all of the I/O and tools.c contains the pattern-matching routines. Grep translates the pattern strings into a special template representing the pattern (more about this later), while the routine matchs() does the actual pattern matching; it processes all symbols except the OR (|) operator, which separates the regular expressions.

Grep creates a template for every regular expression input and organizes these templates using an array of pointers to templates (similar to argv) called exprv[]; a count of the number of separate expressions in the array (exprc) is also available. Grep then calls matchs(), once for each template in exprcv[], before getting the next input line.

The Pattern Template

The templates are a linked list of structures called TOKENs

NAME

grep-search a file for a pattern

SYNOPSIS

grep [-options] . . . [expression] [filelist] . . .

DESCRIPTION

This program will find a string specified by a regular expression in a file or group of files. The following options are recognized:

- –v All lines but those matching are printed.
- -c Only a count of the matching lines is printed.
- -I The names of the files with matching lines are listed (once) separated by newlines.
- -n Each line is preceded by its line number in the file.
- -h Do not print filename headers with output lines.
- -y All characters in the file are mapped to upper case before matching. This is the default if the regular expression is given on the command line (because CP/M maps everything on the command line to upper case). Use the -f option if you need both lower and upper case.
- -e <expression> Same as a simple expression argument, but useful when the expression begins with a ''-.''
- -f <file> The regular expression is taken from the file. If several regular expressions are listed (separated by newlines or | s) then a match will be flagged if any of the regular expressions are satisfied. –e and –f are mutually exclusive. If –f is given, any regular expression on the command line is taken to be a filename.

Regular expressions are composed of the following:

A ^ matches the beginning of a line.

A \$ matches the end of a line.

A \ followed by a single character matches that character. In this way a "*" will match an asterisk, a "\." matches a period, etc. The following sequences are special:

Figure 1

```
\b backspace (^H)
\n linefeed (^J this is not the same as $)
\r carriage return (^M)
\s space
\t tab (^I)
\\ backslash
```

A . matches any character.

A single character not otherwise endowed with special meaning matches that character.

A string enclosed in brackets [] specifies a "character class." Any single character in the string will be matched. For example "[abc]" will match an a, b, or c. Ranges of ASCII character codes may be abbreviated as in "[a-z0-9]." If the first symbol following the [is a ^ then a "negative character class" is specified. In this case, the string matches all characters except those enclosed in the brackets (i.e., [^a-z] matches everything except lower case letters). Note that a negative character class must match something, even though that something cannot be any of the characters listed. For example: "^\$" is not the same as "^[^z]\$." The first example will match an empty line (beginning of line followed by end of line); the second example matches a beginning of line followed by any character except a z followed by end of line. In the second example a character must be present on the line, but that character can't be a z. Note that *, ., ^, and \$ are not special characters when inside a character class.

A regular expression followed by a * matches zero or more matches of the regular expression.

Two regular expressions concatenated match a match of the first followed by a match of the second.

Two regular expressions separated by a or a newline match either a match for the first or a match for the second.

The order of precedence is [] then * concatenation then then newline.

EXAMPLE:

The command line:

grep -n ^[a-z] [a-z] * [\s\t] *.* ([^;]*) [^;]*\$ <file list>

creates a cross reference of a large C program. "<file list>" should be replaced with a list of the modules to be searched. Grep's output will show all subroutine declarations in all the listed files. In addition, every output line will be preceded by both the name of the file in which the line was found (this is automatic if more than one file is searched) and by the appropriate line number (the –n causes line numbers to be shown).

The regular expression is interpreted as follows: beginning of line (^) followed by one or more occurrences of any character in the range a to z ([a-z] $[a-z]^*$), followed by either a space or a tab repeated zero or more times ($[\strut_s]^*$), followed by any character repeated zero or more times (.*), followed by a open parenthesis ((), followed by any character except a semicolon repeated zero or more times ($[\strut_s]^*$), followed by a close parenthesis (), followed by any character except a semicolon repeated zero or more times ($[\strut_s]^*$), followed by end of line (\$).

BUGS

All features of the unix version of grep are supported except that the -s, -x, and -b options and the meta-characters (,), + and ?.

Arguments, if present, must be grouped together in the second position on the command line. The character of the group must be a –. Unless the –f option is given, the next argument is always taken to be the expression. If –f is present then the third argument is the name of the file containing the expression.

Beware of spaces or tabs in the expression, even if your compiler supports quoted arguments. CP/M will object to 1 anywhere on the command line. Use 1 for spaces and 1 for tabs to be safe.

Some of the command line switches do mutually exclusive things (like –ef and –eh). If you try to trick grep into doing something it is not supposed to do, the output will be undefined.

Grep's execution speed varies as a function of the type of expression being parsed. The speed will vary as follows (listed fastest to slowest):

- Simple expressions anchored to beginning of line (^<expression>).
- Expressions matching literal strings.
- Expressions including character classes ([]).
- Expressions including closure (*).

Figure 1

(Figure 2, below). Matchs() is passed a pointer to this linked list. A string holding a regular expression is converted to a template by the procedure makepat(). Since alloc() is used to allocate the (main) memory needed to contain the template, the expression can be any length, within reason. Using the routine unmakepat(), you can return the memory used by a template to the free list. Unmakepat() is not used by grep, but it may be useful for other applications (such as editors).

Some of the fields in a TOKEN are not always used; although using a union would have saved a small amount of (main) memory space, this would have added additional complexity to the program as a whole. The tok field identifies the type of symbol represented by this node (closure, character class, etc.). If the node is a literal character, 1char holds the character itself, and if the node is a character class, string points at a string holding all the characters in the class. Classes defined with the dash notation (a-z) are expanded.

Note that a CLOSURE token is put into the chain in front of the node on which it operates (even though the closure symbol is put after the character in the expression itself). This transposition eliminates the need for any sort of lookahead in the searching routines. When we encounter the CLOSURE token, we know the next token should be repeated zero or more times. If the CLOSURE token didn't come first, we would process the character on which the CLOSURE operates as if it were a literal match; that is, we would match a single occurrence of the character. Since closure represents zero or more matches, this first match would be incorrect. So, if the CLOSURE token didn't come first, we couldn't process a token without also having to look for a CLOSURE token following it.

Matchs()

The core of grep is the routine matchs() and the procedures that matchs() calls. This routine looks for a regular expression match in a string. It takes the string and a pointer to a pattern template as input and returns a pointer into the string upon success (or zero if no match is found). This pointer can point at either the beginning or the end of the matched string, depending on the value of the "ret_endp" parameter to matchs(). If ret_endp is zero, a pointer to the beginning of the matched string is returned; if ret_endp is non-zero, then a pointer to the end of the matched string is returned. For example, given the string "abcdefghijklm" and the pattern a.*j, matchs() can return a pointer either to the "a" or to the "j." This is a useful feature in an editor.

You must be careful with the \$ symbol if you want to use the pointers returned by matchs(). Usually \$ means at the

end of line, not the end-of-line character itself; for example, if you are searching for f\$, a pointer will be returned to the "f." However, if you are searching for \$ itself, a pointer to the actual end-of-line character is returned. This takes care of the ^\$ case. Matchs() must return a pointer to something, and the only character on the line is the newline character. A search for \n will always return a pointer to the newline. This last is a nonstandard feature but, again, is useful in an editor application.

Matchs() advances through the input string, one character at a time, until it reaches the end of the string and failure is returned. It calls amatch() to actually do the comparisons; when amatch() returns success, so does matchs().

Amatch() goes through the pattern template, one element at a time, comparing it with the text string. It advances to the next element of the template with each successful comparison, also advancing the text string as appropriate. If amatch() reaches the end of the template, the match is successful. Omatch() is called to do the simple comparisons: single characters against single elements in the pattern template.

Amatch() returns immediately on failure so the performance of matchs() is not too slow in the general case (execution time is directly proportional to the length of the input stream). The worst-case performance, however, is an exponential function of the matched string's length. Given an input string of the form

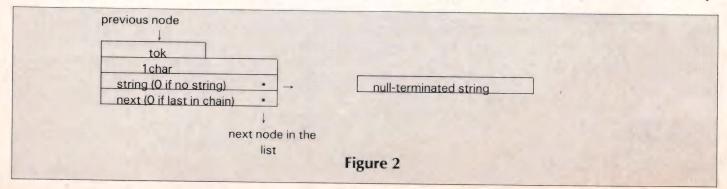
along with a match string

a*c

amatch() will be called n times, where n is the length of the input string. Each call to amatch() will look at the entire input string on the order of n^2 times; this means that the total worst-case execution time is $O(n^3)$.

Most of this is the fault of closure processing, which is done by brute force. Amatch() first eliminates all the characters defined by the closure, scanning along the text string and calling omatch() until a mismatch is found. It then tries to match the rest of the template against the rest of the text string. If it fails to do so, amatch() goes backwards through the characters it just processed, still trying to match the trailing string against the rest of the pattern template. This is necessary because the character following the closure could have been included in the closure itself.

For example, in the pattern $[a-z]^*t$ (which matches any



lower-case word ending in a "t"), the final "t" will be sucked up by the first scan since "t" is included in the character class [a-z]. Since amatch() has scanned too far, an attempt to match the "t" will now fail. So, it backs up a notch in the input string then tries to match the rest of the pattern template again, repeating this process recursively until it gets back to the beginning of the closure. The recursion only goes one level deep. If anyone knows a better way to do this, please tell me.

Examples

Makepat() takes two arguments. The first argument is an ASCII string holding the regular expression; the second argument is a character to use as a terminator in the expression string. That is, processing of the expression string will be terminated when the character specified by the second argument is encountered.

The template returned by makepat() when called with

makepat("^The qui", '\0')

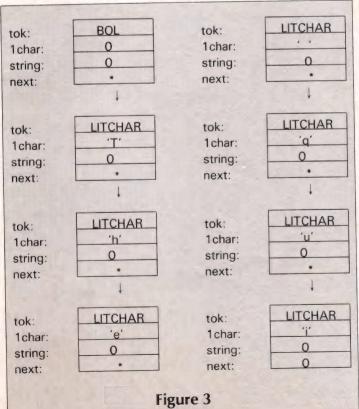
is shown in Figure 3 (below). If we had called makepat with

makepat("^The quick", '')

a template like that in Figure 3 would be returned. However, this time the template would stop with the "e" LITCHAR because we passed makepat() a space as the input string terminator. A call to

 $makepat("a[0-9].*[^v]$",' \0')$

returns a pointer to the template shown in Figure 4 (page 56).



Matchs() looks for an expression on only one input line. Consequently, it has to be called several times, once for each line in the input file. Three arguments are required: the first is a pointer to the line being searched, the second is a pointer to a pattern template (returned by a previous call to makepat(), and the third determines whether matchs() will return a pointer to the beginning or to the end of the matched pattern (0 for a pointer to the beginning, 1 for the end).

Consider the program fragment:

#include "tools.h"

TOKEN *template; char *ptr;

template = makepat("456", '\0');

ptr = matchs("1234567890", template, 0);

ptr = matchs("1234567890", template, 1);

ptr = matchs("abcdefghij", template, 1);

The call to makepat() returns a pointer to a pattern template representing the string "456." This template will be three elements long, one element for each character in the string, and all three elements will be of type LITCHAR. The first call to matchs() will return a pointer to the "4" (because its third parameter is zero). The second call to matchs() will return a pointer to the "6" (because the third parameter is 1). The third call to matchs() returns zero because the string "456" doesn't exist in the string "abcdefghij."

A simplistic version of grep—using only gets(), makepat(), and matchs()—is shown in Figure 5 (page 57). This version prints all input lines that match a pattern found on the command line. No attempt at any sort of error checking is made in this example, so it's not a very practical program. It does illustrate how makepat() and matchs() may be used in a real program.

Debugging Aids

Four routines are included here for use in debugging. These are pr_tok(), pr_line(), insert(), and delete(); all are in tools.c.

Pr_tok(), when passed a pointer to a linked list of TO-KENs, will print out the list to stdout. You can use pr_tok() to monitor the progress of amatch() as it works and to see if the expression is translated correctly to begin with.

Pr_line() prints out one line of text to stdout; any nonprintable characters are represented as numbers in the form:

 $\0x(two hex digits)$

Insert() puts a character into a string at a place pointed to by its "str" parameter. Delete() takes the character out again.

Some Implementation Notes

In the course of bringing up grep on my own system, I ran into a few problems worth mentioning. First, depending on which compiler you use, getting the expression from the command line may be unexpectedly difficult. The command-line parser for Aztec C II (the compiler I used on this version) doesn't allow quoted strings; that is, an argument of the form

grep "this is a single argument" foo.bar

will be broken up into seven (rather than three) arguments by the compiler. So I modified the command-line parser in the module croot.c to accept quoted strings.

While the BDS C compiler does give you quoted strings, pitfalls exist here too. As it parses the command line, BDS strips off the quotes. Because BDS wild card expansion is done with a call to wildexp() inside of the program proper (instead of inside the command-line parser where it belongs), wildexp() can't differentiate between the quoted argument and the normal arguments: it doesn't have any quotes to work with. Consequently, it will try to expand the regular expression if the expression has an * or a ? in it.

I got around this problem in a BDS version of grep by getting the regular expression from the command line before calling wildexp(). I then replaced the argv entry, which pointed at the expression, with a pointer to a null string and called wildexp(). You could also try to call wildexp() from inside the command-line parser itself. Since the parser is written in assembly language and wildexp() is in C, I didn't try this (though it would be a permanent solution to the problem).

A similar problem can be found in microshell. Microshell supports quoted strings, but a backslash inside a quoted string is treated as a special character. You need to double the backslash to pass it through to grep (i.e., use \\s instead of \\s; and \\\ instead of \\). One saving grace is that microshell lets you pass tabs through unmolested.

One final difficulty. You may use grep as a filter if you like: if you are running microshell or some other environment that supports pipes, you may use grep as a general purpose filter, stripping out unwanted material from the input stream and passing the modified stream on to another

program. The problem is what happens to end-of-line terminators on their way through the pipe.

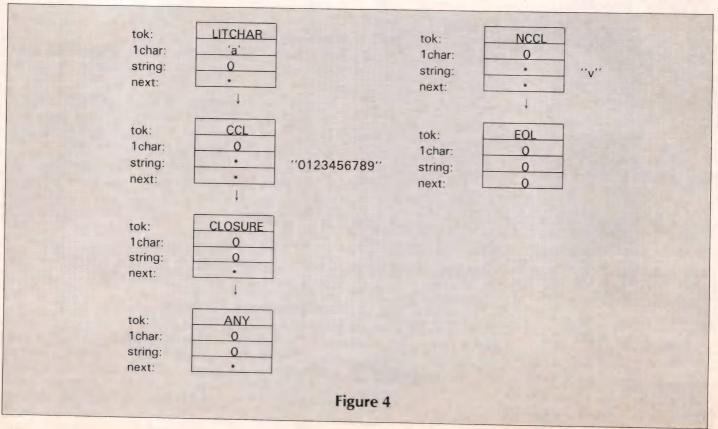
CP/M requires a carriage return, line feed combination at the end of line. C, however, wants a single newline character (\n). Consequently, when getc() sees a CR, it echoes it as a CR-LF (so the screen looks nice) and then turns it into a \n; on output, putc() will turn the \n back into a CR-LF.

This is fine until you use the output of one program as the input of another. The next program will see the CR-LF, echo it as CR-LF-LF, and map it to a \n\n (one \n for the CR, another for the LF). The output from the second program will have a CR-LF-CR-LF at the end of every line: instant double spacing. If you go through another layer of pipe you will get CR-LF-CR-LF-CR-LF-CR-LF at the end of each line, and so on.

A solution would be to have getchar() work as described above and have getc() ignore the LF character entirely (not pass it through to the program). The BDS C compiler doesn't lend itself to this change because its I/O library has the two input routines functionally reversed (i.e., getc() calls getchar(), which is backwards from Unix). You could also use the BDS version 1.5 raw I/O routines, but then your code would be even more nonstandard. Alternately, you could do all your character input from the console with direct bdos() calls.

Conclusion

In spite of the few implementation problems I encountered, grep remains an extremely useful program. It has saved me hours of rooting around in modular C programs looking for misspelled subroutine names. Its cross-referencing capability has also proved invaluable. When I get a new C compiler, the first thing I do is use grep to make a cross reference of the



runtime library sources. Using this cross reference, it's easy to find the source code for the particular library subroutine that doesn't seem to be working correctly. The addition of matchs() to the RED editor has made it a much nicer editor, giving RED not only an extended search capability but also a powerful global substitution capability. Once you've used regular expressions in an editor, you won't settle for anything else. I hope that you find this program as useful as I have.

Copies of grep, along with the C source code, are available from the author at the above address for \$35.00 (+ tax if a California resident). (Copies provided on a standard, IBM format, single density, 8-inch, CP/M-compatible floppy disk or on DS/DD, IBM-PC, PCDOS-Compatible, 5¼-inch disks).

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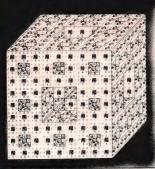
GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing One

```
TOOLS.H: Various #defines and typedefs for GREP
                   Copyright (c) 1984 Allen Holub
        Copyright (c) 1984 Software Engineering Consultants
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                         Berkeley, CA, 94705
                          All rights reserved.
*
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米
        for $35 from Software Engineering Consultants. Supported disk formats are CP/M 8" SS/SD and PCDOS (v2.x) 5-1/4" DS/DD.
*
        #defines for non-printing ASCII characters
                          /* ^@
                 0x00
#define NUL
                          /* ^A
                 0x01
#define SOH
                          /* ^B
#define STX
                 0x02
                          /* ^C
                 0x03
#define ETX
                          /* ^D
                 0x04
#define EOT
                          /* ^E
#define ENQ
                 0x05
                          /* ^F
/* ^G
                 0x06
#define ACK
                                  */
#define BEL
                 0x07
                          /* ^H
                                   */
                 0x08
#define BS
                          /* ^I
                 0x09
#define HT
                 0x0a
#define LF
#define NL
                 LF
                 0x0b
                          /* ^K
                                   */
#define VT
                          /* ^L
#define FF
                 0x0c
                          /* ^M
                 0x0d
#define CR
```

(Continued on next page)

GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing One

```
#define SO
                         /* ^N */
                 0x0e
                 0x0f /* ^0
 #define SI
                                 */
 #define DLE
                         /* ^P
                 0x10
                         /* ^Q
 #define DC1
                 0x11
 #define DC2
                         /* ^R
                 0x12
 #define DC3
                         /* ^S */
                 0x13
 #define DC4
                         /* ^T */
                 0x14
 #define NAK
                 0x15 /* ^U */
                         /* ^V
 #define SYN
                 0x16
 #define ETB
                         /* "W
                 0x17
 #define CAN
                         /* ^ X
                 0x18
                                  */
 #define EM
                 0x19
                         /* ^Y
                                  */
                         /* ^Z
 #define SUB
                 0x1a
 #define CPMEOF
                 SUB
 #define ESC
                         /* ^[
                 0x1b
 #define FS
                 0x1c
                         /* * \
                         /* ^]
/* ^^
 #define GS
                 0x1d
 #define RS
                 Oxle
                         /* ^
 #define US
                 0x1f
 #define DEL
                 0x7f
                          /* DEL
 #define TRUE
 #define FALSE
         Definitions of meta-characters used in pattern matching routines.
 *
        LITCHAR & NCCL are only used as token identifiers; all the others
 *
        are also both token identifiers and the actual symbol used in
 *
        the regular expression
#define BOL
                 1 4 1
#define EOL
                 1$1
                 1 1
#define ANY
#define LITCHAR 'L'
#define ESCAPE '\\'
                 '['
#define CCL
                                 /* Character class:
                                                           [...]
                                                                           */
#define CCLEND
#define NEGATE
#define NCCL
                                /* Negative character class [^...]
                                                                           */
#define CLOSURE '*'
#define OR SYM
#define CLS SIZE 128
                                  /* Largest permitted size for an expanded
                                 ** character class. (Ie. the class [a-z]
** will expand into 26 symbols; [a-z0-9] will
                                 ** expand into 36 symbols.)
        Tokens are used to hold pattern templates. (see makepat() in
        tools.h
typedef struct token{
                char
                                 tok:
                char
                                 1char:
                char
                                 *string;
                struct token
                                 *next;
              TOKEN:
#define TOKSIZE sizeof(TOKEN)
```



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by Greenleaf New	160	139
Trace-86 by Morgan Computing	125	115
OPT-TECH Sort		
High Performance Utility	99	87
Profiler by DWB & Associates	175	149
AKA ALIAS by Soft Shell Technology	60	57
Plink-86 Overlay Linkage Editor	395	315
Panel Screen Design/Editing by Roundhill	350	259
FirsTime Intelligent C Text Editor		
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GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing One

```
An absolute maximum for strings.
 */
#define MAXSTR
                             132
                                                 /* Maximum number of characters in
                                                          a line.
                                                  */
extern char *matchs();
extern int
                   amatch();
extern char
                   *in_string();
extern TOKEN
                 *getpat();
extern int esc();
extern int dodash();
extern TOKEN *makepat();
extern int unmakepat();
insert();
extern int
                delete();
extern int
                  isalphanum();
extern int
                 stoupper();
pr_tok();
extern int
extern int extern int
              pr_line();
                 max();
```

End Listing One

Listing Two

```
TOOLS.C: The expression parser used by grep.
                     Copyright (c) 1984 Allen Holub
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 *
         This program may be copied for personal, non-commercial use
         only, provided that this copyright notice is included in all
         copies and that this program is not modified in any way.
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 *
         Machine readable versions of this program may be purchased for $35 from Software Engineering Consultants. Supported
         disk formats are CP/M 8" SS/SD and PCDOS (v2.x) 5-1/4" DS/DD.
#include "a:stdio.h"
#include "b:tools.h"
 *
         This module contains the various routines needed by grep
 *
         to match regular expressions. Routines are ordered
 *
         alphabeticaly.
 */
int
         amatch( lin, pat, boln )
char
         *lin, *boln;
TOKEN
         *pat;
```

```
Scans through the pattern template looking for a match
        * with lin. Each element of lin is compared with the template
        * until either a mis-match is found or the end of the template
         * is reached. In the former case a O is returned; in the latter,
        * a pointer into lin (pointing to the last character in the
        * matched pattern) is returned.
                        is a pointer to the line being searched.
                "lin"
                "pat"
                "pat" is a pointer to a template made by makepat().
"boln" is a pointer into "lin" which points at the
                                 character at the beginning of line.
         */
register char *bocl, *rval, *strstart;
if (pat == 0)
        return (0);
strstart = lin;
while ( pat )
         if (pat->tok == CLOSURE && pat->next)
                         Process a closure:
                        First skip over the closure token to the
                        object to be repeated. This object can be
                         a character class.
                  */
                 pat = pat->next;
                        Now match as many occurrences of the
                          closure pattern as possible.
                   */
                  boc1 = lin;
                  while ( *lin && omatch(&lin, pat) )
                         'Lin' now points to the character that made
                          made us fail. Now go on to process the
                          rest of the string. A problem here is
                          a character following the closure which
                          could have been in the closure.
                          For example, in the pattern "[a-z]*t" (which
                          matches any lower-case word ending in a t),
the final 't' will be sucked up in the while
                          loop. So, if the match fails, we back up a
                   *
                          notch and try to match the rest of the
                   *
                          string again, repeating this process
                   *
                           recursively until we get back to the
                           beginning of the closure. The recursion
                   *
                           goes, at most, two levels deep.
                   *
                   */
                  if (pat = pat->next)
                            while ( bocl <= lin )
                                    if (rval = amatch(lin, pat, boln))
                                             /* success */
                                             return(rval);
                                    else
                                             --lin;
                            return (0); /* match failed */
```

(Continued on next page)

GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Two

```
else if ( omatch(&lin, pat, boln) )
                            pat = pat->next;
                   else
                            return (0);
          }
          /*
                   Note that omatch() advances lin to point at the next
                   character to be matched. Consequently, when we reach
                   the end of the template, lin will be pointing at the character following the last character matched.
                   The exceptions are templates containing only a
                   BOLN or EOLN token. In these cases omatch doesn't
           *
                   advance.
           *
                   So, decrement lin to make it point at the end of the
           *
                   matched string. Then, check to make sure that we haven't
           *
                   decremented past the beginning of the string.
                   A philosophical point should be mentioned here. Is $
                   a position or a character? (Ie. does $ mean the EOL
          *
                   character itself or does it mean the character at the end of
                   the line.) I decided here to make it mean the former, in
          *
                  order to make the behavior of amatch() consistent. If you give amatch the pattern '$ (match all lines consisting only of an end of line) then, since something has to be returned,
          *
                   a pointer to the end of line character itself is returned.
                  One final point. If you use a macro instead of a real
                  subroutine to define max(), then take the --lin out of
                  the macro call to avoid side-effects (lin being decremented
                  twice).
         return ( max(strstart , --lin) );
delete( ch, str )
                  ch:
register char
                  *str;
                  Delete the first occurrence of character from string
                  moving everything else over a notch to fill the hole.
        ch &= Oxff;
        while ( *str && *str != ch)
                  str++:
        while ( *str )
                 *str = *(str+1);
                 str++;
```

}

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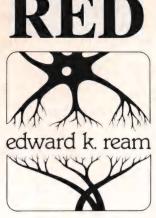
GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Two

```
dodash(delim, src, dest, maxccl)
 int
 int
           delim, maxccl;
           **src, *dest;
 char
                    Expand the set pointed to by *src into dest.
                    Stop at delim. Return O on error or
                    size of character class on success. Update *src to point
                    at delim. A set can have one element {x} or several
                    elements ( {abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz} and {a-z}
                    are equivalent ). Note that the dash notation is expanded as sequential numbers. This means (since we are using the ASCII character set) that a-Z will contain the entire alphabet plus the symbols: [\]^_` . The maximum number of characters in a character class is defined by maxccl.
            */
           register char
                              *dstart;
           register int
                              k, at_begin;
           char
                              *sptr;
          dstart = dest;
          sptr = *src;
          at_begin = 1;
          while ( *sptr && (*sptr != delim) &&
                                                             (dstart-dest < maxccl) )
                    if ( *sptr == ESCAPE )
                              *dest++ = esc(&sptr);
                              sptr++;
                    else if ( *sptr != '-')
                              *dest++ = *sptr++;
                    /* literal '-' */
                    else if (*(sptr -1) \le *(sptr+1))
                             sptr++;
                              for( k = *(sptr-2); ++k <= *sptr;)
                                       *dest++ = k:
                             sptr++;
                    }
                   else
                             return(0);
                   at_begin = 0;
          *dest++ = ' \setminus 000':
          *src = sptr;
          return (dest - dstart):
int
          esc(s)
          **s;
char
```

```
register int rval;
       /* Map escape sequences into their equivalent symbols. Returns the
        * Correct ASCII character. If no escape prefix is present * then s is untouched and *s is returned, otherwise **s
        * is advanced to point at the escaped character and the
        * translated character is returned.
       if ( **s != ESCAPE )
              rva1 = **s;
       else
               (*s)++;
               switch( toupper(**s) )
               case '\000': rval = ESCAPE;
                                                      break;
               case 'S':
                             rva1 = ' ' ;
                                                      break;
                              rval = '\n';
                                                      break:
                              rval = '\t';
               case 'T':
                                                       break:
               case 'B': rval = '\b';
case 'R': rval = '\r';
default: rval = **s;
                                                       break:
                                                       break;
                                                       break;
       return (rval);
TOKEN *getpat( arg )
char
       *arg;
               Translate arg into a TOKEN string
       return ( makepat(arg, '\000' ));
}
insert( ch, str )
               ch;
register char *str;
               Insert ch into str at the place pointed to by str. Move
               everything else over a notch
        register char
                       *bp;
        bp = str;
        while (*str)
                                      /* Find the end of string
               str++;
                                        /* Move the tail over one notch */
        do
                *(str+1) = *str;
                str--;
        } while (str >= bp);
                                       /* Put the char in the hole. */
        *bp = ch;
/* _____ */
char *in_string( delim, str )
register int delim;
```

GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Two

```
register char *str:
             Return a pointer to delim if it is in the string, 0 if it is not.
         delim &= 0x7f;
         while (*str && *str != delim)
         return ( *str ? str : 0 );
int isalphanum(c)
int
        C ;
              Return true if c is an alphabetic character or digit,
                  false otherwise.
          */
         TOKEN
         *makepat(arg, delim)
char
        *arg;
int
         delim:
         /*
                  Make a pattern template from the string pointed to by arg. Stop when delim or '\000' or '\n' is found in arg.
                  Return a pointer to the pattern template.
                  The pattern templates used here are somewhat different
                  than those used in the book; each token is a structure
                  of the form TOKEN (see tools.h). A token consists of
                  an identifier, a pointer to a string, a literal
                  character and a pointer to another token. This last is 0 if
                  there is no subsequent token.
                 The one strangeness here is caused (again) by CLOSURE which has to be put in front of the previous token. To make this insertion a little easier, the 'next' field of the last
          *
                  token in the chain (the one pointed to by 'tail') is made
                 to point at the previous node. When we are finished,
          *
                 tail->next is set to 0.
         */
        TOKEN
                 *head. *tail:
        TOKEN
                 *ntok;
        char
                 buf[CLS SIZE];
        int
                 error;
        /*
                 Check for characters that aren't legal at the beginning
                 of a template.
        if (*arg=='\0' || *arg==delim || *arg=='\n' || *arg==CLOSURE)
                 return(0);
```



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GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Two

```
error = 0;
head = 0;
tail = 0;
while ( *arg && *arg != delim && *arg != '\n' && !error)
        ntok = alloc( TOKSIZE );
        ntok->string = &(ntok->lchar);
ntok->lchar = '\000';
        ntok->next = 0;
        switch(*arg)
        case ANY:
                ntok - > tok = ANY;
                break;
        case BOL:
                if (head==0) /* then this is the first symbol */
                         ntok->tok = BOL;
                else
                         error = 1;
                break:
        case EOL:
                                          | *(arg+1) == '\000'
                if (*(arg+1) == delim)
                                          | | *(arg+1) == '\n' )
                        ntok->tok = EOL:
                else
                        error = 1;
                break:
        case CCL:
                if (*(arg+1) == NEGATE)
                         ntok->tok = NCCL:
                         arg += 2;
                else
                        ntok->tok = CCL;
                         arg++;
                error = dodash(CCLEND, &arg, buf, CLS_SIZE);
                if (error != 0)
                         ntok->string = alloc( error );
                         strcpy( ntok->string, buf );
                        error = 0;
                break;
       case CLOSURE:
                if ( head != 0 )
                         switch ( tail->tok )
                         case BOL:
                        case EOL:
```

```
case CLOSURE:
                                        return(0);
                                 default:
                                         ntok->tok = CLOSURE;
                         break;
                default:
                         ntok->tok = LITCHAR;
                        ntok->1char = esc(&arg);
                if( error | ntok == 0 )
                         unmakepat(head);
                         return (0);
                else if (head == 0)
                         /* This is the first node in the chain.
                         ntok->next = 0;
                         head = tail = ntok;
                }
                else if (ntok->tok != CLOSURE)
                        /* Insert at end of list (after tail) */
                        tail->next = ntok;
                        ntok->next = tail;
                        tail = ntok;
                }
                else if(head != tail)
                        /* More than one node in the chain. Insert the
                         * CLOSURE node immediately in front of tail.
                        (tail->next)->next = ntok;
                        ntok->next = tail;
                }
                else
                        /* Only one node in the chain, Insert the CLOSURE
                         * node at the head of the linked list.
                        ntok->next = head;
                        tail->next = ntok;
                        head = ntok;
                }
                arg++;
        tail->next = 0;
        return (head);
}
char
        *matchs(line, pat, ret_endp)
       *line;
char
TOKEN
       *pat;
```

```
int
       ret endp;
       1*
        *
               Compares line and pattern. Line is a character string while
        *
               pat is a pattern template made by getpat().
        *
               Returns:
        *
                      1. A zero if no match was found.
                      2. A pointer the last character
        *
                         satisfying the match if ret endp is non-zero.
                      3. A pointer to the beginning of the matched string
                         if ret endp is 0;
        *
               For example:
                      matchs ("1234567890", getpat("4[0-9]*7"), 0);
        *
               will return a pointer to the '4', while
                      matchs ("1234567890", getpat("4[0-9]*7"), 1);
               will return a pointer to the '7'.
        */
       char
               *rval, *bptr;
       bptr = line;
       while (*line)
               if ((rval = amatch(line, pat, bptr)) == 0)
                      line++;
               else
                      rval = ret endp ? rval : line ;
                      break;
       return (rval):
                    */
stoupper(str)
char
       *str;
       /*
        *
               Map the entire string pointed to by str to upper case
        *
               Return str.
        */
       char
               *rval:
       rval = str;
       while (*str)
               str++;
       }
```

```
return(rval);
        max(x,y)
int
int
        x , y ;
        return ( (x>y) ? x : y );
                                     */
        omatch (linp, pat, boln)
        **linp, *boln;
char
TOKEN
        *pat:
                 Match one pattern element, pointed at by pat, with the
                 character at **linp. Return non-zero on match.
Otherwise, return O. *Linp is advanced to skip over the
                 matched character; it is not advanced on failure. The
                 amount of the advance is 0 for patterns that match null strings, 1 otherwise. "boln" should point at the position
                 that will match a BOL token.
         */
        register int
                        advance;
        advance = -1;
        if ( **linp )
                 switch ( pat->tok )
                 case LITCHAR:
                          if ( **linp == pat->lchar )
                                  advance = 1;
                          break:
                  case BOL:
                           if ( *linp == boln )
                                   advance = 0;
                           break:
                  case ANY:
                           if ( **linp != '\n' )
                                   advance = 1;
                           break:
                  case EOL:
                           if ( **linp == '\n' )
                                   advance = 0;
                           break;
                  case CCL:
                           if( in_string (**linp, pat->string) )
                                   advance = 1;
                           break;
                  case NCCL:
                           if ( ! in_string (**linp, pat->string) )
                                   advance = 1;
                           break:
                           printf("omatch: can't happen\n");
```

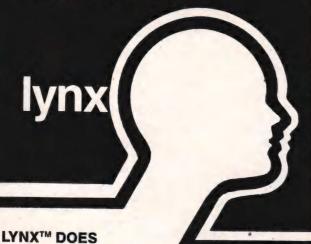
GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Two

```
if (advance >= 0)
                  *linp += advance;
         return( ++advance );
pr line(ln)
register char
                  *1n;
                  Print out ln, if a non-printing character is found, print
                  out its numerical value in the form "\0x<hex number>". Again, this is a debugging aid. It lets you see what's
                  really on the line.
          */
         for (; *1n; 1n++)
                  if ((' ' <= *1n) && (*1n <= '~'))
                           putchar(*1n);
                  else
                           printf("\\0x%02x", *1n);
                           if (*1n == '\n')
                                    putchar('\n');
         }
pr_tok(head)
TOKEN
         *head;
         register char *str;
         /*
                  Print out the pattern template (linked list of TOKENs)
          *
                  pointed to by head. This is a useful debugging aid. Note
                  that pr_tok() just scans along the linked list, terminating
                  on a null pointer; so, you can't use pr_tok from inside makepat() because tail->next points to the previous
                  node instead of being null.
          */
         for (; head ; head = head->next )
                  switch (head->tok)
                  case BOL:
                           str = "BOL";
                           break;
                  case EOL:
                           str = "EOL":
                           break;
                  case ANY:
                           str = "ANY";
                           break:
                  case LITCHAR:
                           str = "LITCHAR";
                           break:
```

```
case ESCAPE:
                       str = "ESCAPE";
                       break;
               case CCL:
                       str = "CCL";
                       break;
               case CCLEND:
                       str = "CCLEND":
                       break;
               case NEGATE:
                       str = "NEGATE";
                       break;
               case NCCL:
                        str = "NCCL";
                        break:
               case CLOSURE:
                        str = "CLOSURE";
                        break;
               default:
                        str = "**** unknown ****";
               printf("%-8s at: 0x%x, ", str, head);
               if (head->tok == CCL | head->tok == NCCL)
                        printf ("string =[%s]=, ", head->string);
               else if (head->tok == LITCHAR)
                        printf("lchar = %c, ", head->lchar);
                printf("next = 0x%x\n", head->next);
       putchar('\n');
unmakepat(head)
TOKEN
       *head;
        /* Free up the memory used for the token string */
       register TOKEN *old_head;
        while (head)
                switch (head->tok)
                case CCL:
                case NCCL:
                        free(head->string);
                        /* no break, fall through to default */
                default:
                        old head = head;
                        head = head->next;
                        free(old_head);
                        break;
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GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Three

```
GREP.C: A generalized regular expression parser.
                  Copyright (c) 1984 Allen Holub
        Copyright (c) 1984 Software Engineering Consultants
                             P.O. Box 5679
                         Berkeley, CA, 94705
                         All rights reserved.
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        written permission of the author is prohibited.
        Machine readable versions of this program may be purchased
        for $35 from Software Engineering Consultants. Supported disk formats are CP/M 8" SS/SD and PCDOS (v2.x) 5-1/4" DS/DD.
*/
#include "a:stdio.h"
#include "b:tools.h"
        GREP
 *
        Search a file for a pattern.
        The algorithm used here is essentially the algorithm in
        Software Tools in Pascal (pp 145f.). Though the routines have
        been changed somewhat to put them into good 'C'. See tools.c
        for details.
        This program is a healthy subset of the UNIX program of the same
        name. The differences are as follows:
                 - the -s, -x and -b options are not supported.
                 - the meta-characters ()+? are not supported.
        usage is:
                 grep [-vclnhyef] [expression] files ...
        To compile with the Computer Inovations C86 compiler use:
 *
                 ccl grep
                 cc2 grep
                 cc3 grep
 *
                 cc4 grep
                 ccl tools
                 cc2 tools
                 cc3 tools
                 cc4 tools
                 link grep tools,,,c86s2s.lib
 *
        To compile with Aztec CII use:
 *
                 ccl -x4000 grep.c
                 as grep.asm
                 ccl -x4000 tools.c
                 as tools.asm
                 In grep.o tools.o a:libc.lib
 */
```

GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Three

```
/*
#define CPM
                                         Comment this out if you're compiling
                                         in an MSDOS system.
                                  */
#define MAXLINE 128
                                         Maximum size of an input line
#define MAX EXPR 64
                                 /*
                                         The maximum number of regular
                                         expressions separated by
                                         newlines or allowed.
                                  */
/*
        The following global flags are true if a switch was set
        in the command line, false otherwise.
*/
int
        vflag, yflag, cflag, lflag, nflag, hflag, fflag;
main(argc, argv)
int
        argc;
char
        **argv;
               i, j, linenum, count;
        int
                line[MAXLINE];
        int
                numfiles;
        FILE
                *stream;
        int
                exprc;
        TOKEN
                *exprv[MAX EXPR];
        i = 1;
        if (argc < 2)
                abort( pr_usage(1) );
        if ( *argv[i] == '-')
                        Expand the switches on the command line
                expand_sw( argv[i++] );
                if (i == argc)
                        abort( pr_usage(1) );
        }
        /*
                Get the pattern string.
        if ( (exprc = get_expr( exprv, MAX_EXPR, &argv[i++])) == 0 )
                abort( pr usage(2) );
                                         /* Get number of files left to
        numfiles = argc - i:
                                             process on the command line
        fprintf(stderr,"(c) Copyright 1984, Software Engineering Consultants\n"
        do
                if ( numfiles)
                        stream = fopen( argv[i], "r");
```

```
if (stream == NULL)
                                 fprintf(stderr, "Can't open %s\n", argv[i]):
                else
                         stream = stdin:
                count = 0:
                linenum = 1;
                 while (fgets(line, MAXLINE, stream))
#ifdef CPM
                         if (!fflag || vflag )
                                  stoupper(line);
#else
                         if ( yflag )
                                 stoupper(line);
#endif
                         for( j = exprc ; --j >= 0 ; )
                                  if ( matchs(line , exprv[j]) )
                                          count++:
                                          pr match(linenum, line, argv[i], 1,
                                                                    numfiles);
                                  else
                                                                              (Continued on next page)
```





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GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Three

```
pr_match(linenum, line, argv[i], 0,
                                                                    numfiles);
                                  linenum++;
                                  cntrl_c();
                          if( 1flag && count )
                                  break;
                 pr_count( numfiles, argv[i], count );
                 fclose (stream);
         } while (++i < argc);
        abort();
pr_count( fcount, fname, count)
int
        fcount, count;
char
        *fname;
                 Process the -c flag by printing out a count and,
                 if more than one file was listed on the command line,
                 the file name too.
         */
        if (!cflag)
                 return;
        if (fcount > 1)
                  printf("%-12s: ", fname );
        printf( "%d\n", count );
pr_match(linenum, line, fname, match, numfiles)
        linenum, match;
        *line, *fname;
char
                If a match is found print the correct thing
                 as specified by the command line switches.
        char
                 buf[80];
        if (cflag)
                 return;
        if ((vflag && !match) | (!vflag && match))
                 if (!hflag && ( (numfiles > 1) || 1flag) ) printf("%s%s", fname, 1flag ? "\n" : ":" );
                 if (nflag)
                         printf("%03d:", linenum );
                 if (!lflag)
                         printf("%s", line );
```

```
pr_usage(num)
int num;
#ifdef DEBUG
      fprintf(stderr, "%d ", num);
#endif
      fprintf(stderr, "usage: grep [-cefhlnvy] [expression] <files ...>\n");
/*_____
abort()
       exit();
        -----*/
expand_sw( str )
      *str;
char
              Set global flags corresponding to specific switches
       *
              if those switches are set
        */
       vflag = 0;
       cflag = 0;
       1flag = 0;
       nflag = 0;
       hflag = 0;
       fflag = 0;
       yflag = 0;
       while (*str)
              switch ( toupper(*str))
              case '-':
              case 'E':
                     break;
              case 'C':
                     cflag = 1;
                     break;
              case 'F':
                     fflag = 1;
                      break;
              case 'H':
                      hflag = 1;
                      break;
               case 'L':
                      1flag = 1;
                      break;
              case 'N':
                      nflag = 1;
                      break;
```

GREP.C (Listing Continued, text begins on page 50) Listing Three

```
case 'V':
                        vflag = 1;
                        break:
                case 'Y':
                         yflag = 1;
                         break;
                default:
                         pr_usage(3);
                        abort();
                        break;
                str++;
int do_or( lp, expr, max )
char
       *1p;
        **expr;
TOKEN
int
        max;
        int
                found;
        TOKEN
                *pat;
                *op;
        char
        found = 0;
                Extract regular expressions separated by OR_SYMs from
                lp and put them into expr. Extract only up to
                max expressions. If yflag is true map string to upper
                case first.
         */
        if( yflag )
                stoupper( lp );
        while ( op = in_string(OR_SYM, 1p) )
                if(found <= max && (pat = makepat(1p, OR_SYM)) )
                        *expr++ = pat;
                        found++;
                1p = ++op;
                if (pat == 0)
                        goto fatal err;
        if (found <= max && (pat = makepat( 1p, OR_SYM)) )
                found++;
                *expr = pat;
       if ( pat == 0 )
```

Dr.Dobb's Journal

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Vol. 4 1979

This volume heralds a wider interest in telecommunications, in algorithms, and in faster, more powerful utilities and languages. Innovation is still present in every page, and more attention is paid to the best ways to use the processors which have proven longevity—primarily the 8080/Z80, 6502, and 6800. The subject matter is invaluable both as a learning tool and as a frequent source of reference.

Main subjects include: Programming Problems/Solutions, Pascal, Information Network Proposal, Floating Point Arithmetic, 8-bit to 16-bit Conversion, Pseudo-random Sequences, and Interfacing a Micro to a Mainframe-more than everl

Vol. 5 1980

All the ground-breaking issues from 1980 in one volume! Systems software reached a new level with the advent of CP/M, chronicled herein by Gary Kildall and others (DDJ's all-CP/M issue sold out within weeks of publication). Software portability became a topic of greater import, and DDJ published Ron Cain's immediately famous Small-C compiler—reprinted here in full!

Contents include: the Evolution of CP/M, and CP/M-Flavored C Interpreter, Ron Cain's C Compiler for the 8080, Further with Tiny BASIC, a Syntax-Oriented Compiler Writing Lanquage, CP/M-to-UCSD Pascal File Conversion, Run-time Library for the Small-C Compiler and, as always, even morel

Vol. 6 1981

Microcomputing was entering a technical maturity in 1981, while continuing to break new ground. This volume includes Dr. Dobb's first all-FORTH issue and the first Dr. Dobb's "Clinic" columns. There is continued coverage of CP/M and Small-C development, along with J.E. Hendrix's Small-VM and Santa Barbara Tiny BASIC for 6809—all here in one giant volume.

Articles include: Pidgin—A Systems Programming Language, The Conference Tree, Write Your Own Compiler with META-4, several exciting Z80 utilties, North Star tidbits, and

Vol. 1 1976

The material brought together in this volume chronicles the development in 1976 of Tiny BASIC as an alternative to the "finger blistering," front-panel, machine-language programming which was then the only way to do things. This is always pertinent for bit crunching and byte saving, language design theory, home-brew computer construction and the technical history of personal computing.

Topics include: Tiny BASIC, the (very) first word on CP/M, Speech Synthesis, Floating Point Routines, Timer Routines, Building an IMSAI, and more.

Vol. 2 1977

1977 found DDJ still on the forefront. These issues offer refinements of Tiny BASIC, plus then state-of-the-art utilities, the advent of PILOT for microcomputers and a great deal of material centering around the Intel 8080, including a complete operating system. Products just becoming available for reviews were the H-8, KIM-1, MITS BASIC, Poly Basic, and NIBL. Articles are about Lawrence Livermore Lab's BASIC, Alpha-Micro, String Handling, Cyphers, High Speed Interaction, I/O, Tiny Pilot & Turtle Graphics, many utilities, and even more.

Vol. 3 1978

The microcomputer industry entered its adolescence in 1978. This volume brings together the issues which began dealing with the 6502, with mass-market machines and languages to match. The authors began speaking more in terms of technique, rather than of specific implementations; because of this, they were able to continue laying the groundwork industry would follow. These articles relate very closely to what is generally available today.

Languages covered in depth were SAM76, Pilot, Pascal, and Lisp, in addition to RAM Testers, S-100 Bus Standard Proposal, Disassemblers, Editors, and much, much more.

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GREP.C (Listing continued, text begins on page 50) **Listing Three**

```
fatal err:
               printf("Illegal expression\n");
               exit();
       return (found);
get_expr( expr, max, defexpr )
TOKEN *expr[];
TOKEN
int
       max;
       **defexpr;
char
       FILE
               *stream;
       int
               count;
       char
               line[MAXLINE]:
#ifdef DEBUG
       int
               i;
#endif
               Get regular expressions separated by or newlines
        *
               either out of a file or off the command line depending
               on whether the -f flag is set. The expressions are
               converted into pattern templates (see tools.c) and
               pointers to the templates are put into the array expr[]
               (which works similar to argv).
               Return the number of expressions found (which can be used
               in a similar fashion to argc).
        */
       count = 0;
       if (fflag)
               /*
                       Then *defexpr is the file name and expressions should
                       be taken from that file.
               if ( (stream = fopen(*defexpr, "r")) == NULL )
                       fprintf(stderr, "Can't open %s\n", *defexpr);
                       abort();
               while ( (max - count) && fgets(line, MAXLINE, stream) )
                       count += do_or(line, &expr[count], max - count );
               fclose (stream);
       else
               /*
                       *defexpr is the expression itself.
               }
```

End Listings

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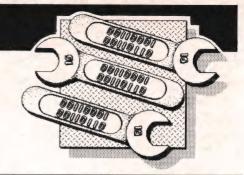
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by Ray Duncan

MSDOS 2.0 Filters

One of the enhancements in MSDOS 2.0 is support for the concept of redirectable I/O á la Unix. Two predefined I/O channels, called the "standard input" and "standard output," may be accessed by any program; ordinarily they are directed to the keyboard and video display, respectively, but they can be individually redirected to other devices or to files with parameters placed in a DOS command line.

The standard I/O devices allow introduction of "filters," another feature of Unix, into the MSDOS environment. To quote the MSDOS manual, "A filter is a program or command that reads data from a standard input device, modifies the data, and writes the result to a standard output device.... By using the piping feature, you can cause a filter to receive its input from another command, or send its output to another command."

Three simple filters are supplied with MSDOS 2.0: SORT, which sorts text data; FIND, which searches an input stream to match a specified string; and MORE, which displays data one screen at a time. The witty technical writers at Microsoft go on to say, "You can easily add your own filter to the filters that have been supplied; just write a program that reads its input from the standard input device, and writes its output to the standard output device." You can easily build your own jetliner, too. Just hook some wings and a fuselage onto some engines, and there you are!

DDJ to the rescue once again. This month we present a detailed example of how to write a filter, with a little program called CLEAN. I previously published this program in a different form in Softalk/ IBM, and it was modified into a filter by Bob Taylor of Buffalo, New York. CLEAN can transform al-

most any kind of text input stream into a stripped-down output file. It may be used, for example, to massage a Word-Star docume? < file or other word processing file into a form that EDLIN can cope with. It does this by stripping the high bit off of all characters, expanding tabs to spaces, and deleting all control codes except for form feeds, line feeds, and carriage returns.

In the command line for CLEAN, you must specify the source and destination for the text; otherwise it will simply read the default standard input (the keyboard) and write to the default standard output (the video display). For example, to filter the WordStar document file "MYFILE.WS" and leave the result in "MYFILE.TXT," you would enter:

A>CLEAN < MYFILE.WS > MYFILE.TXT

Note that the original file, MYFILE .WS, is unchanged. An invaluable application of the CLEAN filter is to rescue assembly language source files. I've found that when you accidentally perform extensive editing on such a source file in WordStar "document" mode instead of "nondocument" mode, the resulting file makes the assembler gag and spit out nasty messages. CLEAN lets you turn the source file back into something the assembler can swallow without losing all those painful hours of editing.

Another handy application for CLEAN is to list a WordStar document file in "raw" form on the printer, complete with print commands, etc.:

CLEAN < MYFILE.WS > PRN:

CLEAN is a simple program and highly modular, as you will see from the accompanying source code (Listing One, page 87). It illustrates reading

from the standard input, writing to the standard output, and sending error messages to the (unredirectable) standard error device. It is also remarkably slow. This Macintosh-like performance can be ascribed to the fact that the input and output streams are being treated as character devices. Even when files are being processed, two calls are made to MSDOS for every character filtered. You will find that if you change the "get_char" and "put_char" routines to perform 1024-byte reads and writes, and block/deblock the data internally to the CLEAN program, performance becomes extremely spiffy.

Next month, we'll publish the much more sophisticated "TK" filter in this column. TK, contributed by Jim Mott, is a powerful token parser with many runtime options.

Sizing RAM under MSDOS

In a previous column (DDJ No. 90, April 1984), I published a rather circuitous method of finding the amount of available RAM under MSDOS 2.0. Several readers wrote in to take me to task for this item and showed me that there is a much more direct way to get the same result. Billy Smith's letter says it all:

"On the subject of sizing RAM under MSDOS, I know of a very simple solution that I think qualifies as machine independent. In appendix E of the DOS manual we have an explanation of how DOS prepares programs for execution. The preparation, besides loading the file itself into RAM, consists of:

- (1) DOS setting up a PSP (Program Segment Prefix) just below the loaded program, and
- (2) DOS initializing some of the registers.

"A careful examination of the structure of the PSP shows that the word at PSP offset 2 contains the paragraph address of the first paragraph following the end of contiguous RAM. This is incredibly unclear in the manual, and it was only by test that I became certain of this fact.

"The manual fails to explicitly give the address of this value in the PSP. It must be deduced from an ambiguous diagram (page E-8). The value, which is called Top of Memory (not too bad a name), is footnoted as follows:

First segment of available memory is in segment (paragraph) form (for example, hex 1000 would represent 64K).

"It seems that what they mean by 'available memory' is in fact 'unavailable memory,' i.e., the paragraph address of the first paragraph of memory past the end of contiguous RAM. At any rate, this fact of the DOS environment is readily available to every COM and EXE file at load time. I hope this makes sizing of memory a little easier for you and other readers of DDJ!"

Many thanks to Billy and the several other readers who provided this helpful information

More Microsoft Assembler Warnings

While writing this month's column, I stumbled on a new discrepancy between the manual and the Macro Assembler. The manual leads you to believe that the following code is correct:

LES AX, DOUBLEWORD PTR [BP + 12]

In practice, that code causes the assembler to cough up a funny error message. What you need to write is:

LES AX, DWORD PTR [BP + 12]

The reserved token DWORD isn't mentioned anywhere in the manual as far as I can tell.

Bill Payne of Sandia Labs was kind enough to send a list of further "features" of the Microsoft Macro Assembler. These items were apparently collected on a CompuServe bulletin board by John Chapman and have passed through the hands of an unknown number of intermediate benefactors. I have verified them all again before this appearance in DDJ.

(1) The 8088 does not support a comparison of immediate data with a segment register. If you write

CMP ES.0

the assembler will produce the opcode

CMP AX.0

and does not generate any error message.

(2) Most instructions with missing operands generate error messages; however, the instruction MOV AX. produces the machine code for MOV AX.0

and no error message. Apparently, the same thing will happen for all instructions that can use a general register as the destination and immediate data as the source. Zero is always used for the missing operand.

(3) Erroneous code will be generated if square brackets denoting indexed addressing mode are omitted in certain operations, even though an error message would be expected. If you write MOV BYTE PTR ES:DI,'\$'

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the assembler will generate the machine code for

MOV BYTE PTR ES: [7],'\$'

rather than what was intended, which was

MOV BYTE PTR ES: [DI], '\$'

This appears to occur because the assembler finds DI in its symbol table, equated to the register triplet 111B, and substitutes the 7 as though the programmer had written DI EOU 7

(4) Even if a RADIX pseudo-op has been used to specify the default base for data values, the assembler will still check the last character for a valid radix specification and use it if present. For example, .RADIX 16

.RADIX 16 SUB BX.0B

generates the machine code

83 EB 00

which is incorrect for X'0B', while SUB BX,11d or SUB BX,0Bh are both correct and will generate the machine code

83 EB 0B

which is the intended instruction.

(5) Data entry errors. Always scan comments in a newly entered program to make sure that each is preceded by a semicolon rather than a colon. The assembler will assume that the colon denotes a label and will generate the spurious error message "Open Procedures." Review labels in failing programs: the branch table sequence below provides both correct and incorrect examples.

Correct code . : .

JMP CS:JUMLIST[BX]

JUMLIST DW routine1
DW routine2
Incorrect code . : .

JMP CS:JUMLIST [BX]

JUMLIST: DW routine1 DW routine2

(6) Pseudo-operations. The XLIST pseudo-op will be ineffective during both passes if the command line parameter /D is specified for the assembly. Also, the assembler will not correctly resolve "identity" type definition errors in the EQUATE pseudo-op.

LOOPIT EQU LOOPIT will cause the assembler to hang.

Hex to ASCII Conversion

Jim Garinger of Hermosa Beach, California, writes: "In the June DDJ 16-Bit Toolbox, you included a subroutine to convert a binary word to its hex ASCII equivalent. It seems to be typical of the methods used by my friends with 8-bit systems. Trying to do this same thing myself with the 8086 assembler instructions, I hit upon another way to do it and would like to share it with you. The listing is self-explanatory and lists the number of bytes of code and the clocks (you might want to check

me on them) from the Intel manual, *IAPX 88 Book*. This, by the way, has proven to be my invaluable reference when doing 8086 assembler work.

"I would like to point out that further gains in speed can be made with this routine, using my original coding methods, by coding the call to hexbyte in line twice instead of as a near call. For the five bytes of added size penalty, there is a fair percentage of gain in clock speed. And nobody seems concerned about size anymore anyway.

"I did assemble both of our routines to check actual size, but I am afraid I can't guarantee the accuracy of the clocks or the addition (I ran out of fingers and toes early on)."

Jim's subroutine accompanies this column as Listing Two (page 90).

DDI

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16-Bit Toolbox (Text begins on page 84) **Listing One**

```
1
                                                 name
                                                         clean
                                                         55.132
                                                 page
                                                 title 'CLEAN - Filter text file'
3
4
5
                                          CLEAN - a DDS 2.0 filter for word processing document files.
                                         ; Originally written by Ray Duncan
                                         ; Converted to DOS 2.0 filter by Bob Taylor.
8
9
                                         ; This program reads text from the standard input device and writes
10
                                         ; filtered and transformed text to the standard output device.
11
12
                                                 1. High bit of all characters is stripped off.
13
                                                 2. Tabs are expanded.
14
                                                 3. Removes all control codes except for line
15
                                                     feeds, carriage returns, and form feeds.
16
                                                 4. Appends an end-of-file mark to the text, if
17
                                                     none was present in the input stream.
18
19
20
                                         ; Can be used to make a WordStar file acceptable for
                                         ; other screen or line editors, and vice versa.
21
22
23
24
          = 0000
                                         cr
                                                 equ
                                                         Odh
                                                                          ; ASCII carriage return
         = 000A
                                         lf
                                                         Dah
                                                                          : ASCII line feed
25
                                                 POU
                                                                          ; ASCII form feed
26
          = 0000
                                         ff
                                                 eau
                                                                          : End-of-file marker
                                                         01ah
27
         = 001A
                                         eof
                                                 equ
                                                                          ; ASCII tab code
          = 0009
28
                                         tah
                                                 edu
29
                                                                          ; buffer for command tail
30
          = 0080
                                         command equ
31
                                          ; DOS 2.0 Pre-Defined Handles
32
33
                                                                          ; standard input file
34
          = 0000
                                          stdin
                                                 equ
                                                          0000
```

(Continued on next page)

16-Bit Toolbox (Listing Continued, text begins on page 84) Listing One

35	= 0001	stdout equ	0001	; standard output file
36	= 0002	stderr equ	0002	; standard error file
37	= 0003	stdaux equ	0003	; standard auxilliary file
38	= 0004	stdprn equ	0004	; standard printer file
39				
4Ū	0000	cseg segment	para public 'CC	DDE'
41				
42		assume	cs:cseg,ds:cseg	I
43				
44	0100	org	100H	; start .COM at 100H
45				
46	0100	clean proc	far	; entry point from PC-DOS.
47	0100 1E	push	ds	; push a long return back
48	0101 33 00	xor	ax,ax	; to DOS onto the stack.
49	0103 50	push	ax	
50				
51	0104 E8 0160 R	clean3: call	get_char	; get a character from input.
52	0107 24 7F	and	al,7fh	; turn off the high bit.
53	0109 30 20	стр	al,20h	; is it a control char?
54	0108 73 10	jae	clean4	; no. write it to output.
55	010D 3C 1A	смр	al,eof	; is it end of file?
56	010F 74 4B	je	cleanb	; yes, go write EDF mark and exit.
57	0111 3C 09	смр	al, tab	; is it a tab?
58	0113 74 2D	je	clean5	; yes, go expand it to spaces.
59	0115 3C 0D	смр	al,cr	; is it a carriage return?
60	0117 74 08	je	clean35	; yes, go process it.
61	0119 3C 0A	стр	al,lf	; is it a line feed?
62	0118 74 04	je	clean35	; yes, go process it.
63	0110 3C OC	стр	al,ff	; is it a form feed?
64	011F 75 E3	jne	clean3	; no. discard it.
65	0121	clean35:		
66	0121 C7 06 0193 R 0000	mov	column,0	; if it's a legit ctrl char,
67	0127 EB 05 90	jmp	clean45	; we should be back at column 0.
68				
69	012A FF 06 0193 R	clean4: inc	column	; if it's a non-ctrl char,
70	012E	clean45:		; col = col + 1.
71	012E E8 0178 R	call	put_char	; write the char to output.
72	0131 73 D1	jnc	clean3	; if OK, go back for another char.
73				
74	0133 BB 0002	MOV	bx,stderr	; not OK. Set up to show error.
75	0136 BA 0195 R	mov	dx, offset err_m	sg
76	0139 B9 0018 90	MOV	cx,err_msg_len	; error = Disk full.
77	0130 84 40	mov	ah,40h	; write the error message
78	013F CO 21	int	21h	; to the standard error device. (CON:)
79	0141 CB	ret		; back to DOS.
80				
81	0142 A1 0193 R	clean5: mov	ax,column	; tab code detected, must expand
82	0145 99	cwd		; expand tabs to spaces.
83	0146 B9 0008	MBV	cx,8	; divide the current column counter
84	0149	idiv	CX	; by eight
85	014B 2B CA	sub	cx,dx	; eight minus the remainder is the
86	014D 01 0E 0193 R	add	column,cx	; number of spaces to send out to
87	0151	clean55:		; move to the next tab position.
88	0151 51	push	CX	
89	0152 80 20	mov	al,20h	

90	0154	E8 0178 R		call	put_char ; se	end an ASCII blank
91	0157	59		bob	CX	
92	0158	E2 F7		loop	clean55	
93	015A	EB AB		jmp	clean3	
94						
95	0150	E8 0178 R	clean6:	call	put_char ; wr	ite out the EOF mark,
96	015F	СВ		ret		d return to DOS.
9?						
98	0160		clean	endp		
99						
100						
101	0160		get_cha	r proc r	near	
102	0160	BB 0000		mov	bx,stdin	; get chars from std. input
103	0163	89 0001		mov	cx,1	; # of chars to get = 1
104	0166	8A 0191 R		mov	dx,offset input_buff	er ; location = input_buffer
105	0169	B4 3F		MOU	ah,3fh	
106	016B	CD 21		int	21h	; do the function call
107	0160	OB CO		or	ax,ax	; test # of chars returned
108	016F	74 04		jz	get_char1	; if none, return EOF
109	0171	AO 0191 R		MOV	al,input_buffer	; else, return the char in AL
110	0174	C3		ret		
111	0175		get_cha	rl:		
112	0175	BO 1A		MOV	al,eof	; no chars read, return
113	0177	C3		ret		; an End-of-File (EOF) mark.
114	0178		get_cha	r endp		

(Continued on next page)



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16-Bit Toolbox (Listing Continued, text begins on page 84) Listing One

```
115
116
          0178
                                          put char proc near
117
         0178 A2 0192 R
                                                          output buffer,al
                                                 MOV
                                                                                  ; put char to write in buffer.
118
         0178
               88 0001
                                                          bx.stdout
                                                                                  ; write to std. output
                                                 MOU
119
         017E B9 0001
                                                          cx.1
                                                                                  : # of chars = 1
                                                 MOV
120
          0181 BA 0192 R
                                                          dx.offset output buffer ; location = output buffer
                                                  MOU
121
         0184 84 40
                                                 MOU
122
          0186 CD 21
                                                          21h
                                                 int
                                                                                   ; do the function call
123
         0188 30 0001
                                                          ax.1
                                                                                  ; check to see it was really done.
                                                 cmp
124
         0188 75 02
                                                          put char1
                                                  ine
125
         018D F8
                                                 cle
                                                                                  ; really done. return carry = 0
126
         018E C3
                                                 ret
                                                                                   ; as success signal.
127
         018F
                                         put charl:
128
          018F F9
                                                                                   ; not really done. return carry = 1
129
         0190 C3
                                                 ret
                                                                                   ; as error signal (device is full).
130
         0191
                                          put char endp
131
132
         0191 00
                                          input buffer
                                                                  0
133
         0192 00
                                         output_buffer
                                                                  0
134
135
         0193 0000
                                                                  0
                                          column
136
137
         0195 OD OA
                                                                  cr.lf
                                                          db
                                          err_msg
138
         0197 63 6C 65 61 6E 3A
                                                                  'clean: Disk is full.'
139
                20 44 69 73 68 20
140
                69 73 20 66 75 60
141
                6f. 2F
142
         OLAB OD OR
                                                                  cr.lf
                                                          db
143
         = 0018
                                         err_msg_len
                                                          equ
                                                                  (this byte)-(offset err_msg)
144
145
         OIAD
                                                 ends
                                         cseg
146
147
                                                 end
                                                          clean
```

End Listing One

16-Bit Toolbox Listing Two

Jim Garinger's binary to hex ASCII subroutine.

```
; In each comment, the first number is the number of
; bytes of machine code, and the second is the number
; of machine cycles to execute that instruction.
hexconv
           proc
                        near
                                     ;45 bytes/276 clocks
                                     ; 1
           cld
                                     ; 2
                                            4 shift count
                        c1,4
           mov
                        bx, offset hextbl
           mov
                                         12 point to table for translations
                                     ; 3
                                          2 store for converting 2nd half
                        ch, al
           mov
                                     ; convert upper half of
                                     ; word to hex ASCII
                                     ; 3 19 (98 clocks)
           call
                        hexbyte
                                     ; 2
                                            2 get the word
           mov
                        ah, ch
                                     ; convert lower half of
                                     ; word to hex ASCII
                                     ; 3
                                           19
                                              (98 clocks)
            call
                        hexbyte
                                     ; 1
                                           20
           ret
                                           80 (+ 2*98 = 276 \text{ total clocks})
           proc
                        near
hexbyte
                                           3 clear for positioning
                                     ; 2
                        al, al
            xor
                                           20 low nibble into al
            shr
                        ax,cl
                                     ; 2
                                           20 position lower nibble
            shr
                        al,cl
                                           ll convert lower nibble
                                     ; 1
            xlat
                        hextbl
                                     ; 2
                                           2 get higher nibble
                        al,ah
            xchq
                                           ll convert higher nibble
                                     ; 1
                        hextbl
            xlat
                                     ; 1
            stosw
                                           11
                                     ; 1
                                           20
            ret
                                      conversion table to hex ASCII
                         "Ø123456789ABCDEF"
            db
hextbl
hexbyte
            endp
hexconv
            endp
```

; Destroys: AX, BX, CX, SI, clears direction flag

End Listings

C/UNIX PROGRAMMER'S NOTEBOOK



By Anthony Skjellum

The thrust of this column is to provide examples of scientific uses for the C programming language. My aim is to present routines useful in conjunction with scientific programming; some are general and others implement specific numerical algorithms. I intend this column for several specific audiences. The first audience comprises those diehard programmers who continue to produce useful programs in outdated languages. Not only is this of greater expense to themselves, but it also cheats others by locking them into Fortran or other old-fashioned languages. For them, I want to illustrate the elegance and versatility of C.

The second audience (which may also include the first) is those users interested in scientific applications who may not have used C for this purpose. This column should demonstrate that C is completely acceptable for such purposes, and the code shows how generally concepts can be presented. (I make no attempt to survey scientific applications where C could be used but merely include some nontrivial examples.) Finally, for those readers who don't fit into the above categories, the general purpose routines should still prove interesting.

The column presents three programming systems. The first is a set of general purpose subroutines designed to simplify the process of user – program interaction and to provide a straightforward means for handling erroneous input. The input mechanisms are not particularly sophisticated but emphasize structure in the user's program.

All the code presented with this article is copyright © 1983, 1984 by the California Institute of Technology (Caltech), Pasadena, CA 91125. All rights reserved. This code may be freely distributed, used for all non-commercial purposes, but may not be sold.

The routines make range checking so automatic that the programmer has no excuse for omitting such checks, regardless of how quickly a program must be completed. Providing these routines to novice programmers in a classroom environment has eliminated a lot of frustration over using the scanf() function.

The second and third programming systems illustrate Runge-Kutta integration. The Runge-Kutta formalism is a standard numerical technique for handling the numerical integration of one or more first-order ordinary differential equations. Interested readers may wish to consult the book *Numerical Analysis* by Richard L. Burden, et

al. (Prindle, Weber, Schmidt Publishers, 2nd ed., 1981). This is the source for the algorithms presented in the code and is also a fine reference for introductory numerical methods. I chose the Runge-Kutta routines as examples because of their widespread use in scientific work.

Acknowledgements

The general purpose library has received extensive use by Caltech students during the past school year. Thanks are due to Scott Lewicki who discovered a couple of minor details that caused major errors.

The Runge-Kutta code was developed by Michael J. Roberts and my-

```
int iinp(prompt,cflag,low,high);
```

char *prompt: optional prompt string to be printed before input

char cflag: checking flag: if non-zero, range checking is performed

int low

int high: low, high are (inclusive) range checking values

iinp() repeats input until a valid number is entered; the valid number is the func-

tion's return value.

double finp(prompt, cflag, low, high);

char *prompt: optional prompt string to be printed before input

char cflag: checking flag: if non-zero, range checking is performed

double low

double high: low, high are (inclusive) range checking values

finp() repeats input until a valid number is entered; the valid number is the function's return value

len = sinp(prompt, string, length);

int len: length of entered string

char *prompt: optional prompt string to be printed before input

int length: maximum length of input string

sinp() ignores leading spaces.

retn = cinq(prompt);

int retn: $1 \longrightarrow 'Y'$ was typed, $0 \longrightarrow 'N'$ was typed char *prompt: optional prompt string to be printed before input

retn = display(fname):

int retn: 0 —> success, -1 —> failure char *fname: null-terminated name of file

display() prints the specified file on the standard output device.

Table I GPR Calling Sequences self. Mr.Roberts developed the major portion of the RKSYS (multiple equations) routines as a project for Caltech's Introduction to Computational Physics course. Approximately 60 hours were spent developing, testing, and debugging this code. Mr. Roberts also wrote the original version of the documentation for RKSYS, included in modified form as Table III (page 94).

GPR: General Purpose Routines

The general purpose library consists of five subroutines. Four of these subroutines deal with input. The fifth is a simple facility for printing files to the console. This latter routine, called display(), will be considered separately from the input functions.

The other routines are iinp(), finp(), sinp(), and cinq(). The first three provide integer, floating-point, and string input, respectively. The last is a yes-no question processor. Table I (page 92) provides the exact calling sequences for each of the routines.

Traditionally user input consists of a sequence of lines, such as the sequence for inputting an integer shown in Figure 1 (at right).

Entering this sequence repeatedly can be rather tedious, so error checking is often omitted. This practice leads to programs that do not handle user mistakes intelligently. The GPR routines allow you to replace the above sequence with a single line of code:

```
input = iinp ("Enter input variable
     ->",1,MIN,MAX);
```

Since using the GPR input functions is easier than using scanf(), this variety of function should be well received and may be used in lieu of scanf() for most purposes. A further advantage of these functions is that they unclutter the user's program. More sophisticated checking must still be included explicitly; the input functions only do range checking.

The display() function was included to encourage users to provide on-line help/documentation along with their programs. This function allows users to print out additional text whenever appropriate, creating a trivial on-line help facility; a help feature is almost always appropriate but usually is omitted.

```
#define MIN 10
#define MAX 100
int input;
while (1)
              /* input loop */
      printf("Enter input variable -> ");
      if (scanf("%u",&input)!= 1)
                                      /* get variable */
                          /* drain spurious characters */
              drain();
              continue; /* skip range checks */
      /* do range checking */
      if ((input >= MIN) && (input <= MAX))
                          /* we are done */
              break;
      printf("\nNumber out of range\n");
} /* keep looping until scanf() can read a variable */
                                   Figure 1
```

```
File: RK4.C Subroutine library: Listing Three.
The C language call is as follows:
      rk4(function,a,b,n,alpha,t,w);
where:
      function returns the righthand side f(y,t) of the system
               is the start of the interval of integration
               is the end of the interval of integration
               is the number of integration steps
      n
               is the initial value y(0) = alpha
      alpha
               is the array where the times will be stored
      t
               is where the approximations to y will be stored
The formal C definitions for the functions and its parameters are:
      rk4(): n step integrator
      rk4(function,a,b,n,alpha,t,w)
                              /* function giving f(t,y) */
      double (*function)();
                               /* beginning of interval */
      double a;
                               /* end of interval */
      double b;
                               /* number of steps in interval */
      int n;
                               /* initial condition for y */
      double alpha;
                               /* array for returning T[i] values */
      double t[];
                               /* array for returning W[i] values */
      double w[];
      rk4_1(): 1 step integrator
2.
      rk4_1(function,h,time,yapprox)
      double (*function)(); /* pointer to function to integrate */
                               /* step size */
       double h;
                               /* current time step */
       double time;
                               /* current approximation of function */
       double *yapprox;
```

Table II RK4: Runge-Kutta Integrator Listing One (page 96) shows the GPR routines. The current list is not exhaustive but intended only to suggest a trend for additional routines.

RK4: Runge-Kutta Algorithm

Now we will consider a scientific application of C: single equation Runge-Kutta integration. Before introduction of the code, some background is required.

We start with a differential equation in the canonical form

$$y' = f(y,t)$$

where y'is the first derivative of y with respect to t and f(y,t) is a piece-wise continuous function of its arguments. In addition to the differential equation, we are given an initial condition

$$y(t = 0) = y0$$

where y0 is some real constant (e.g., 35.1). These two equations uniquely specify the solution y(t), which is as yet unknown. The need for numerical techniques arises when the differential equation cannot be solved analytically.

Many possible numerical approaches can solve this equation, but considering all of them is beyond the scope of the current discussion. It is sufficient to state that a technique called RK4 (Runge-Kutta fourth order) will solve the equation numerically with known error characteristics. Listing Two (page 98) presents the solution of a typical equation

$$y/(t) = 1 + y$$

with the initial condition

$$v(t = 0) = 5.0$$

Since this equation can also be solved analytically, a comparison with the exact solution will demonstrate the error characteristics of the method. The analytical solution turns out to be

$$y(t) = t + 5.0*exp(t)$$

This result can be deduced by inspection.

The Runge-Kutta algorithm and code are presented in Listing Three (page 101). Readers interested in more

information should consult the Burden book. Calling sequences are described in Table II (page 93).

RKSYS: Systems of Differential Equations

Imagine now that we have a set (system) of N first-order ordinary differential equations:

$$y'(t) = f(t,y,y...y)$$

 i i 12 N
 $(i = 1,2,...N)$

This problem is useful for solving other systems too, since sets of linear differential equations involving higher order derivatives can be transformed to larger systems of the above variety (see Burden). Thus, a program that can solve the above system has reasonably wide applicability.

Unfortunately, the problem is more complicated for N equations than for one equation, as is evident from Table III (page 95). This table describes the more general Runge-Kutta software, and Listing Four (page 106) contains the actual code. Listings Five and Six (pages 110–114) are example programs that use rk4n() to solve small systems of equations. Listing Five implements the same problem as Listing Two but uses rk4n() instead of rk4() to perform the integration.

Using the Integrator

The rk4n() subroutine will solve a sys-

Files: RKS.C Subroutine library: Listing Four RKST1.C Test program 1: Listing Five RKST2.C Test program 2: Listing Six

The format of the C language call is as follows:

rk4n(function, wsource, wstore, m, a, b, n, alpha, t, kuttas);

where:

function is a pointer to the function that will return the first derivatives of each function in your system. It will be called as:

function(j,i,tval,rk_comp)

where:

j is the current time step is the current function number (0, 1, . . . ,

n – 1).

tval is the current time value

rk_comp is a pointer to a function that your derivative function must call as:

rk_comp(n,j,i)

where:

n is the function number in the system

 $(0, \ldots, n-1)$ of the function you wish to evaluate

j is the time step

i is the current function number

is a pointer to the function that will return a W value (which will have been stored by your WSTORE routine—one need worry only about storing and returning these values, not the values themselves). It will be called as:

wsource(j,i)

where:

wsource

wstore

is the current time step

is the current function number

is a pointer to the function that will store values of W (see wsource above). It is called as:

wstore(j,i,value)

where:

is the current time step

Table III

(Continued on next page)

tem of first-order differential equations as specified by the calling program, using the Runge-Kutta fourth-order integrator (described in Burden, pages 239 – 240; refer also to page 205).

The calling program must provide information for the rk4n() subroutine before it can solve the system of differential equations. This information consists of:

- The first derivatives of each of the functions in the system
- Subroutines to store and retrieve values as the functions are integrated
- Initial conditions for each of the functions
- The range over which the functions will be integrated
- Storage areas for the time and intermediate "k" value arrays

The information must be provided in a

specific order and format, as described in Table III.

By studying the Runge-Kutta routines, the reader will notice the central importance of pointers to functions in the organization of the code. Using this concept effectively allows the software to be completely divorced from the specifics of the user's program.

Conclusions

This article presented three sets of example routines to demonstrate how scientific applications and related software are actually implemented in C. Studying the examples should help the reader to gain insight into the use of C for similar undertakings.

(Listings begin on page 96)

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is the current function number value is the value to be stored for that location Note:wsource(j,i) should be equal to "value" wstore(i,i,value). is the number of equations in your system m is the starting time value for the interval 3 is the ending time value for the interval b is the number of points into which the interval is to be broken n is a one-dimensional array of the initial values. The value alpha alpha[0] is the first function at time = a, alpha[1] is the second, etc. is a one-dimensional array where rk4n() will store the time values as it calculates them. It must be at least as large as n. is a two-dimensional array, the size of whose second element kuttas is 4 (i.e., Kuttas[][4]). It will be the storage area for "k" values as they are calculated. The formal C definitions for the function and its parameters are: double rk4n(function, wsource, wstore, m, a, b, n, alpha, t, kuttas) double (*function)(); double (*wsource)(); double (*wstore)(); int m; double a; double b; int n; double alpha[]; double t[]; double kuttas[][4]; Comments on array sizes, (*wsource)(), (*wstore)(): The (*wstore)() function should trap out-of-bound storage requests that result as a natural part of the rk4n() algorithm. A more elegant solution is to make the array size used by ((one greater than the number of steps.

Table III

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```
gpr.c
                                            created: 01-0ct-83
         general purpose utility routines for use with C to simplify
         user/program interaction.
         by Anthony Skjellum
         Copyright 1983, 1984 (c) Caltech. All rights reserved.
         This subroutine library may be distributed freely and
         used for all non-commercial purposes but may not be sold.
         Routines:
                  iinp(): integer input w/ prompt, range check + retry
finp(): float input w/ prompt, range check + retry
sinp(): string input w/ prompt
                  cinq(): yes/no question processor w/ prompt + retry
                  display(): display a file
         updated: 20-Jul-84
         testing information: this code was tested with Aztec C 1.05j
#include <stdio.h>
/* Unix flag (used by display()) */
1*
#define UNIX 1
#ifndef UNIX
#define TEOF
                           /* ~Z */
                  26
#endif
/* general purpose subroutines: */
/* iinp(): integer input with range checking, prompt and retry */
iinp(prompt, cflag, low, high)
char *prompt;
char cflag;
int low;
int high;
         int ival;
         while(1)
                  printf("%s", prompt);
                  if(scanf("%d",&ival) < 1)
                          while(getchar() != '\n')
                  if((!cflag)||(ival >= low)&&(ival <= high))
                          break;
                                   /* no checking, or within bounds */
                 printf("\nValue out of range, try again...\n");
        return(ival); /* return the value */
} /* end iinp() */
```

```
/* finp(): floating point input with range checking, prompt and retry */
double finp(prompt,cflag,low,high)
char *prompt;
char cflag;
double low;
double high;
        double fval;
        while(1)
                 printf("%s",prompt);
while(scanf("%lf",&fval) < 1)</pre>
                         while(getchar() != '\n')
                 if((!cflag)||(fval >= low)&&(fval <= high))
                         break;
                                  /* no checking, or within bounds */
                 printf("\nValue out of range, try again...\n");
        return(fval); /* return the value */
} /* end finp() */
/* subroutine sinp(): input a string with prompt, length limit */
sinp(prompt, string, length)
char *prompt;
char *string;
int length;
                                           /* length of actual string input */
         int len;
         char chr;
                                           /* string input function */
         char *fgets();
                                                    /* display the prompt */
         printf("%s",prompt);
         while(isspace(chr = getchar()))
         ungetc(chr,stdin);
                                           /* input the string */
         fgets(string,length,stdin);
         if((len = strlen(string)))
                 string[strlen(string)-1] = '\0';
         return(len);
} /* end sinp() */
/* subroutine cinq(): yes no question processor with prompt, retry */
cinq(prompt)
char *prompt;
         char chr;
         while(1)
                 printf("%s",prompt);
                  do /* drain spurious 'white space' */
                          chr = tolower(getchar()); /* use first char */
                  while(isspace(chr));
                  if((chr == 'y')||(chr == 'n')) break;
                  printf("\nRespond with Y or N, please try again...\n");
         return((chr == 'y') ? 1 : 0);
                                                                               (Continued on next page)
```

C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing One

Listing Two

```
program:
                            rktest1.c
         created:
                            03-Nov-83
         by:
                            A. Skjellum
         Copyright 1983, 1984 (c) California Institute of Technology. All rights Reserved. This program may be freely distributed
         for all non-commercial purposes but may not be sold.
         updated:
                            16-Nov-83
         purpose:
                            illustrate the use of rk4 program
         uses:
                            rk4.c
         summary:
                  integrates the differential equation:
                  y'(t) + y(t) = t + 1
                  y(0) = 5.0.
                  for which the exact solution:
                  y(t) = t + 5exp(-t) is known.
*/
/* constants */
#define YZERO
                           /* initial value for y */
/* starting time for integration */
                  5.0
#define TSTART
                 0.0
#define TEND
                  10.0
                           /* ending time for integration */
#define STEPS
                  80
                           /* 40 steps in integration */
/* subroutines: */
/* exact(): returns exact solution value, given t */
double exact(t)
double t:
         extern double exp();
                                    /* exponential function */
```

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C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Two

```
if(t)
                 return((t + YZERO*exp(-t)));
        return(YZERO);
/* fn(t,y): return f(t,y) given t,y values */
double fn(t,y)
double t;
double y;
                 differential equation is y' + y = t + 1
                 therefore, f = t + 1 - y.
        */
        return(t + 1.0 - y);
/* solutn(): print solution step at console */
solutn(t,y)
double *t;
                 /* pointer to t value */
double *y;
                 /* pointer to y value */
        printf("t = %7.3e, y = %7.3e, y_exact = %7.3e, diff = %7.3e\n",
                 *t, *y, exact(*t), *y - exact(*y));
/* main program: */
main()
        /* external declarations */
        double fn(); /* ensure that this is typed as double */
        /* local variables: */
        register int i;
        double yarray[STEPS], tarray[STEPS];
                 /* integrated solution stored here */
        /* begin code: */
        printf("\n\nrktest1.c as of 03-Nov-83\n\n");
printf("Integrates: y' + y = 1 + t for\n\n");
        printf("t = %7.3e to %7.3e, with %u stepsn\n",
                TSTART, TEND, STEPS);
        /*
                 integrate the answer from t = 0 to t = 10 sec
                 80 points.
        */
        rk4(fn,TSTART,TEND,STEPS,YZERO,tarray,yarray);
                         /* compute the answers */
```

Listing Three

```
Runge - Kutta order 4 Algorithm
        Creation date: 31-Oct-83
        Author:
                        Mike Roberts
        Copyright 1983, 1984 (c) California Institute of Technology.
        All rights Reserved. This program may be freely distributed
        for all non-commercial purposes but may not be sold.
        This algorithm is described in detail on page 205 of
        Burden, Richard L.: Numerical Analysis.
        To approximate the solution of the initial value problem
                y'=f(t,y), a <= t <= b, y(a) = alpha,
        at (N+1) equally spaced numbers in the interval [a,b]:
        INPUT endpoints a,b; integerg N; initial condition alpha.
        OUTPUT approximation w to y at the (N+1) values of t.
Step 1:
                h=(b-a)/N;
                t=a:
                w=alpha;
        Output (t,w).
Step 2:
        For i=1,2,...,N do Steps 3-5:
        Step 3:
                        K1=hf(t,w);
                Set
                         K2=hf(t+h/2,w+K1/2);
                        K3=hf(t+h/2,w+k2/2);
                        K4=hf(t+h,w+K3).
        Step 4:
                                                  (Compute w[i].)
                Set w=w+(K1+2K2+2K3+K4)/6;
                                                  (Compute t[i].)
                         t=a+ih.
        Step 5:
                Output (t,w).
Step 6:
        Stop.
*/
#define FALSE 0
#define TRUE 1
rk4(function,a,b,n,alpha,t,w)
                         /* function giving f(t,y) */
double (*function)();
                         /* beginning of interval */
double a;
                         /* end of interval */
double b;
int n;
                         /* number of steps in interval */
                         /* initial condition for y */
double alpha;
                         /* array for returning T[i] values */
double t[];
                         /* array for returning W[i] values */
double w[];
         register int i; /* counter for integration steps */
                         /* stepsize */
         double h;
         double time;
        double yapprox; /* approximation for y value */
```

End Listing Two

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C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Three

```
/* STEP 1: Initialization */
        h = (b-a) / (double)n;
                                        /* Compute stepsize */
                                        /* Initialize time */
        time = a;
        yapprox = alpha;
                                       /* Start with the approximation
                                           equal to the initial value */
        for (i=0; i<n; i++)
                                        /* Main integration loop */
                        /* if not first time, call the integrator */
                if(i)
                        rk4_1(function, h, time, &yapprox);
                        /* Pass the function pointer, the h, time, and
                                yapprox values, and the pointers to
                                the current positions in the T and W
                                matrices */
                time = a + h*(double)i; /* compute time */
                                         /* also save it */
                t[i] = time;
                                        /* store value for function */
                w[i] = yapprox;
   This is the RK4 integrator portion. It performs one step of the
        integration, and is called on each step from the RK4 loop.
        function = pointer to function to integrate
        h = stepsize
        time = current time location
        yapprox = current w (function approximation)
*/
rk4 1(function, h, time, yapprox)
double (*function)();
                                /* Pointer to function to integrate */
double h:
                                /* Step size */
double time;
                                /* Current time step */
double *yapprox;
                                /* Current approximation of function */
       double k1, k2, k3, k4; /* Temporary values in RK calculation */
       k1 = h * (*function)(time, *yapprox);
                                               /* Evaluate first approx */
       k2 = h * (*function)(time+h/2.0, *yapprox+k1/2.0);
                                               /* Evaluate second approx *
       k3 = h * (*function)(time+h/2.0, *yapprox+k2/2.0);
                                                /* And the third */
       k4 = h * (*function)(time+h, *yapprox+k3);
                                                /* And the last one */
       *yapprox += (k1 + 2.0*(k2 + k3) + k4)/6.0; /* new approx */
```

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C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Four

```
created: 07-Nov-83
rk4n.c
authors:
                                A. Skjellum,
                                M. Roberts
                                14-Nov-83
updated:
                                by MJR
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Purpose:
integrate M first order differential equations
y'[i] = f[i](t;y[j=1...M])
M equations.
algorithm:
                see Burden, Faires, Reynolds, p. 239-240
                also see p. 205
        1. interval t = [a,b]
        2. choose N > 0 as as partition of interval (N steps)
        3. define step size h = (b-a)/N.
        4. Initial conditions: (denote w[i,j] as approxes to y's)
                w[i,0] = alpha[i]
                means: ith w at time zero is set to initial value
                       alpha[i].
        5. Computing the w[i,j+1] from w[i,j] is done as follows:
                loop over i = 1 to M
                    compute k1[i] = h*f[i](t,w[1,j],...,w[M,j])
                end of loop
                loop over i = 1 to M
                    compute k2[i] = h*f[i](t+h/2,w[1,j]+.5*k1[1],...,
                                    w[M,j] + .5*k1[M])
                end of loop
                loop over i = 1 to M
                    compute k3[i] = h*f[i](t+h/2,w[1,j]+.5*k2[1],...,
                                   w[M,j] + .5*k2[M])
                end of loop
                loop over i = 1 to M
                    compute k4[i] = h*f[i](t+h,w[1,j]+k3[1],...,
                                   w[M,j] + k3[M]
                end of loop
                loop over i = 1 to M
                    w[i,j+1] = w[i,j] +
                               \{k1[i] + 2*k2[i] + 2*k3[i] + k4[i]\}/6
                end of loop
```

/*

```
double
       (*rk_function)();
       (*rk_source)();
double
double
        (*rk store)();
        (*rk kuttas)[4];
double
double
       (*rk comp[4])();
                                         /* tells us how to form k's */
/* functions called indirectly by k_calc() */
double rk_1(n,j,i)
                       /* to provide compatibility with calling */
int n;
int j;
int i;
        return ((*rk_source)(j,n));
double rk_23(n,k,j,i) /* N is in { 0...M } = argument number.
                            Since we have one argument to FN per equation,
                            N will indicate which we are currently being
                            asked to provide. Same goes for other RK_x
                            functions below. */
int n;
int k;
int j;
int i;
        return((*rk_source)(j,n) + .5*rk_kuttas[n][k]);
}
double rk 2(n,j,i)
int n;
int j;
int i;
        return(rk_23(n,0,j,i));
double rk 3(n,j,i)
int n;
int j;
int i;
        return(rk 23(n,1,j,i));
double rk_4(n,j,i)
int n;
int j;
int i;
        return((*rk_source)(j,n) + rk_kuttas[n][2]);
   Here's the integrator!!! */
double rk4n(function, wsource, wstore, m, a, b, n, alpha, t, kuttas)
double (*function)();
                         /* pointer to function which returns deriv info */
                         /* source of w[i,j] values */
double (*wsource)();
                         /* function which stores w[i,j] values for us */
double (*wstore)();
                         /* number of equations */
int m:
                         /* start of interval */
double a;
                         /* end
                                  of interval */
double b;
                         /* number of points */
int n;
                         /* array of initial values */
double alpha[];
                         /* array where we store times */
double t[];
                         /* n x 4 kuttas (k1,k2,k3,k4 i=1,...m) */
double kuttas[][4];
```

C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Four

```
register int i; /* looping variable */
       register int j; /* looping variables */
       double time;
       double h = (b-a)/(double)n;
                                    /* step size */
       double rk_k2(), rk_k3(), rk_k4(); /* include for emphasis */
       rk function = function;
       rk kuttas
                   = kuttas;
       rk source = wsource:
       rk store
                   = wstore;
       rk comp[0] = rk 1;
       rk_{comp[1]} = rk_2;
       rk comp[2]
                  = rk 3;
       rk comp[3]
                 = rk 4;
       /* First assign initial values */
       for (i = 0; i < m; i++)
               (*rk_store)(0,i,alpha[i]);
       /* Now loop through the necessary loop, calculating
               each K value for each equation in each time step. */
       for(j = 0; j < n; j++)
                               /* n time steps */
               time = a + h*(double)j; /* compute time */
               t[j] = time;
                                        /* also save it */
               rk4_1n(m,j,time,h);
        }
/* rk4_ln(): compute one solution step for n equations */
rk4 1n(m, j, time, h)
int m;
int j;
                               /* time step we're working on */
double time;
double h;
       register int k; /* k calculation loop */
       register int i; /* m equations loop */
       double value; /* temporary */
       for(k=0:k < 4:k++)
                               /* k compute loop */
               k_calc(m,k,j,time,h);
       for(i=0;i<m;i++)
                               /* compute new w[i,j]'s j fixed here */
               + rk_kuttas[i][3]);
                               /* value for w[i,j] */
               (*rk_store)(j+1,i,value); /* save this hard got number */
/* k_calc(): compute rk coefficients for fixed j */
```

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BEGIN
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FOR ITEM := 1 TO 10 DO BEGIN
COUNT:= 0:
FOR I := 0 TO SIZE DO FLAGS[I] := TRUE;
FOR I := 0 TO SIZE DO
IF FLAGS[I] THEN BEGIN
PRIME := 1 + 1 + 3;
K := 1 + PRIME:
WHILE K <= SIZE DO BEGIN
FLAGS[K] := FALSE;
K := K + PRIME
END;
COUNT := COUNT + 1
END;
WRITELN(COUNT, 'PRIMES')
END.

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C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Four

```
k calc(m,k,j,time,h)
int m;
int k;
int j;
double time;
double h;
        register int i;
        double tval;
        switch(k)
                 case 0:
                         tval = time;
                         break;
                 case 1:
                 case 2:
                         tval = time + .5*h;
                         break;
                 case 3:
                         tval = time + h;
                         break;
        for(i=0;i<m;i++)
                                          /* used to be 1; <=m */
                 rk_kuttas[i][k] = h*(*rk_function)(j,i,tval,rk_comp[k]);
```

End Listing Four

Listing Five

```
program:
                rkst1.c
created:
                03-Nov-83
by:
                A. Skjellum
modified:
                14-Nov-83
                M. J. Roberts
by:
Copyright 1983, 1984 (c) California Institute of Technology.
All rights Reserved. This program may be freely distributed
for all non-commercial purposes but may not be sold.
purpose:
                illustrate the use of rk4n program
uses:
                rk4n() (rks.c)
        integrates the differential equation:
        y'(t) + y(t) = t + 1
        y(0) = 5.0.
        for which the exact solution:
        y(t) = t + 5exp(-t) is known.
        Integrates the same equation as rktest1
        but using the more general equation solver,
        rk4n(). This run is exactly the same as for
```

```
exactly the same equation, we will solve a
                "system" of one differential equation.
/* constants */
                     /* number of functions in system */
#define SYSIZE
                5.0
                        /* initial value for y */
#define YZERO
                        /* starting time for integration */
#define TSTART
              0.0
                        /* ending time for integration */
#define TEND
                10.0
#define STEPS
                50
                        /* 50 steps in integration */
/* variables external to all functions */
double wvalue[STEPS+1][SYSIZE];
double yarray[STEPS+1][SYSIZE];
double tarray[STEPS];
        /* integrated solution stored here */
/* subroutines: */
/* exact(): returns exact solution value, given t */
double exact(t)
double t;
                               /* exponential function */
        extern double exp();
        return((t + YZERO*exp(-t)));
/* fn(j,i,t,y): return f(t,y) given t,y values */
double fn(j,i,t,y)
int j;
int i;
double t;
double (*y)();
        double a,b;
                                /* temporary storage space */
                differential equation is y' + y = t + 1
                therefore, y' = t + 1 - y.
        a = (*y)(0,j,i);
                                 /* calculate function
                                Note that the ZERO was passed so as to
                                allow the function to know which argument
                                we are talking about -- in this case,
                                we only need one argument evaluated, so
                                pass it 0 to indicate the first (zeroeth,
                                actually) argument is to be calculated.
                               /* and figure out the rest of it */
        b = t + 1.0 - a:
        return(b);
}
/* store(): the routine to store away the W values for later reference */
double store(row, col, value)
int row, col;
                            location to store the value */
                        /* the actual value to store */
double value;
```

rktest1, except that, rather than trying to solve

C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Five

```
wvalue[row][col]=value;
        return (value);
/* source(): return the W value referenced by input parameters */
double source(row,col)
                          location to look up */
int row, col;
       return (wvalue[row][col]);
/* solutn(): print solution step at console */
solutn(j,i)
int j,i;
                /* element numbers */
        double time:
        double ex;
        double approx;
        time = tarray[j];
              = exact(time);
        approx = source(j,i);
        printf("t = %7.3e, y = %7.3e, y_exact = %7.3e, diff = %7.3e\n",
                time, approx, ex, approx - ex);
/* main program: */
main()
        /* external declarations */
        double store(), source();
        double fn(); /* ensure that this is typed as double */
        /* local variables: */
       register int i, j;
       double init[1];
                            /* initial condition matrix */
        /* begin code: */
       printf("\n\nrktest1.c
                              as of 03-Nov-83\n\n");
        printf("Integrates: y' + y = 1 + t
                                             for\n\n");
        printf("t = %7.3e to %7.3e, with %u steps\n\n",
               TSTART, TEND, STEPS);
        /*
                integrate the answer from t = 0 to t = 10 sec
               STEPS points.
       init[0] = YZERO;
                                /* set up initial condition matrix */
       rk4n(fn,source,store,SYSIZE,TSTART,TEND,STEPS,init,tarray,yarray);
                       /* compute the answers for 1 function */
```

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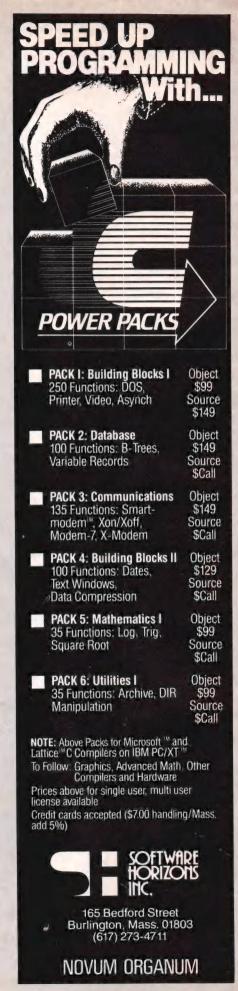
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C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Five

End Listing Five

Listing Six

```
1=
          program:
                             rkst2.c
          created:
                             03-Nov-83
          by:
                             A. Skjellum
          modified:
                             14-Nov-83
                             M. J. Roberts
          by:
          and:
                             5-Dec-83
                             M. J. Roberts
          by:
          modified:
                             25-Jul-84
          by:
                             A. Skjellum
         Copyright 1983, 1984 (c) California Institute of Technology. All rights Reserved. This program may be freely distributed for all non-commercial purposes but may not be sold.
          purpose:
                             illustrate the use of RKS program
          update:
                             to test the rk4n() subroutine using a system
                             of two differential equations.
          uses:
                            rk4n() (rks.c)
         summary:
                   integrates the differential equation system:
                   u1'(t) = 8u2(t)
                                                          u1(0) = 10
                   u2'(t) = 2u1(t)
                                                          u2(0) = 7
                   for which the exact solution is known to be:
                   u1(t) = 12exp(4t) - 2exp(-4t)
                   u2(t) = 6exp(4t) + exp(-4t)
/* constants */
#define SYSIZE 2
                            /* number of functions in system */
#define Y1ZERO 10.0
#define Y2ZERO 7.0
                            /* initial value for first equation */
                            /* initial value for other equation */
#define TSTART 0.0
                            /* starting time for integration */
/* ending time for integration */
#define TEND
                   1.0
                            /* 50 steps in integration */
#define STEPS
                   50
/* variables external to all functions */
```

```
double wvalue[STEPS+1][SYSIZE];
double yarray[STEPS+1][SYSIZE], tarray[STEPS];
        /* integrated solution stored here */
/* subroutines: */
/* exact(): returns exact solution value, given t */
double exact(n,t)
                   which equation is it? 0 or 1? */
int n;
double t:
        extern double exp();
                                /* exponential function */
           This must find solutions for both U1 and U2. The
                exact solutions are given in the header comments to
                this program, above. */
        switch (n)
                case 0:
                        return(12*exp(4*t) - 2*exp(-4*t));
                case 1:
                        return( 6*exp(4*t) + exp(-4*t));
}
/* fn(j,i,t,y): return f(t,y) given t,y values */
double fn(j,i,t,y)
int j;
int i;
double t;
double (*y)();
        switch (i)
                case 0:
                        /* u1'(t) = 8 * u2(t)
                        return(8*(*y)(1,j,i));
                case 1:
                        /* u2'(t) = 2 * u1(t) */
                        return(2*(*y)(0,j,i));
/* store(): the routine to store away the W values for later reference */
double store(row, col, value)
                        /* location to store the value */
int row, col;
                        /* the actual value to store */
double value;
        wvalue[row][col]=value;
        return (value);
/* source(): return the W value referenced by input parameters */
double source(row,col)
int row, col;
                        /* location to look up */
        return (wvalue[row][col]);
/* solutn(): print solution step at console */
```

C/Unix (Listing Continued, text begins on page 92) Listing Six

```
solutn(j,i)
int j,i;
                /* element numbers */
        printf("\nt=%7.3e, y%1d=%7.3e, y%1d_exact=%7.3e, diff=%7.3e",
                tarray[j],i,source(j,i),i,exact(i,tarray[j]),
                source(j,i) - exact(i,tarray[j]));
}
/* main program: */
main()
        /* external declarations */
       double store(), source();
        double fn(); /* ensure that this is typed as double */
       /* local variables: */
       register int i, j;
                                       /* initial condition matrix */
        double init[SYSIZE]:
        /* begin code: */
        printf("\n\nrkst2.c as of 25-Jul-84\n\n");
        printf("
                        Integrates the differential equation system: \n\n");
        printf("
                        u1'(t) = 8u2(t)
                                                          u1(0) = 10 \n";
        printf("
                        u2'(t) = 2u1(t)
                                                          u2(0) = 7 n'');
        printf("
                        for which the exact solution is known to be: \n\n");
        printf("
                        u1(t) = 12exp(4t) - 2exp(-4t)\n");
                        u2(t) = 6exp(4t) + exp(-4t)\n\n");
for t = %7.3e to %7.3e, with %u steps\n\n",
        printf("
        printf("
               TSTART, TEND, STEPS);
                integrate the answer from t = 0 to t = 10 sec
                STEPS points.
        */
        init[0] = Y1ZERO;
                               /* set up initial condition matrix */
        init[1] = Y2ZERO;
        rk4n(fn,source,store,SYSIZE,TSTART,TEND,STEPS,init,tarray,yarray);
                         /* compute the answers for 1 function */
        /* Print out solutions */
        for(i=0;i<SYSIZE;i++)
                for(j=0;j<STEPS;j++)
                                        /* print solution */
                         solutn(j,i);
        printf("\n\nEnd of execution\n\n");
```

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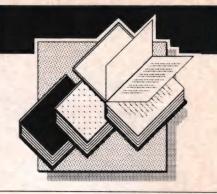
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BOOK REVIEWS



CP/M Techniques

Ken Barbier Published by Prentice-Hall, Inc. 225 pages

Reviewed by Dennis Cashton

If you are as much of a CP/M nut as I am, this book will become indispensable for you. In a very clear, consise, and friendly manner, Ken Barbier manages to discuss the real "guts" of CP/M. If you have worked with modifying your BIOS using assembly language under CP/M and have had to do anything that requires looking at the Digital Research documentation, your hair is probably lying in piles on the floor at the foot of your disk drives. This book takes the mystery out of all the vague topics about which "mother never told you."

I consider Mr. Barbier's previous work CP/M Assembly Language Programming a prerequisite for reading this book, but even if you have only a working knowledge of the mechanics of CP/M with an assembler, that should be good enough to get you through the book. In fact, even if you were a complete novice to CP/M, you'd just about be able to read and understand CP/M Techniques. (The "novice" level of CP/M is obtained by reading and not understanding the Digital Research documentation provided.)

The book starts with a general overview of a computer, what constitutes hardware, software, and firmware, and what constitutes an application program. Barbier follows this with a brief glance at the function of an operating system, and then jumps directly into CP/M. From this point on, the book is packed with sample programs and subroutines, each of which is immediately useful as well as being an excellent example of good programming practice.

In fact, while reading the book, I had to run to the computer and enter each of the programs, just to make sure that they really do work. They do.

He goes on to a discussion of the medium of floppy disks. This section covers everything from history to current standards, and directions for the future (plus some more sample programs). Finally, he plunges head first into the part of CP/M that scares the most people: the BIOS. All the information and techniques illustrated in the prior chapters are brought to bear on the task of creating a customized BIOS for a user's own hardware configuration. What makes this section specially clear is the use of real-life examples. The book is full of them. They make such as abstract concepts like the IO-BYTE much easier to understnd, mostly because you can see a real case of how and why each is used.

After you finish this book, it no longer seems like a monumental effort to get your CP/M to work with multiple printers, or different disk drives, or even a hard disk drive. You walk away from reading this book with a feeling that you can now conquer the (CP/M) world.

The book includes two appendices. The first is the ASCII code with mnemonics, keystrokes, hex, and function. The second is a listing of all the general purpose subroutines printed in the book, and a brief synopsis of their function.

In summary, if you have ever had a good mystery novel that you just couldn't put down, then you will understand the feeling you get from reading this book. It's so full of useful and concisely presented information that it is a pleasure to read. Even if you are not interested in customizing your own BIOS, this book is worth having for the programming techniques alone. If, on the other hand, you have the nerve to

want to mess with your own hardware and BIOS, you'll find this book an invaluable tool.

The RS-232 Solution

Joe Campbell Published by Sybex, Inc. \$16.95, 225 pages, illustrated, paperback

Reviewed by Dennis Cashton

Here's the plot: You get your new printer, the one that will do everything you ever wanted in a printer and more: high speed dot-matrix "correspondence quality" graphics with a 400K buffer. You assume that because the printer is "RS-232 compatible" you can plug it into the RS-232 port on the back of your computer, and everything will work fine.

Rushing home from the store with the printer, you tear the packing material off like it's wrapping on a box under the Christmas tree, glance at the cover of the instruction book, and lightly toss it aside. You don't need to look at it because "if it's RS-232, all I have to do is plug it in!" Wrong! You hook up the cable you bought with it (that the store owner said was a "standard" cable). If you're really lucky, the printer and the computer both have female connectors, because the cable you bought has male connectors on both ends. You turn on the computer. That part you've done a hundred times before, and you get no surprises. You turn on the printer, and the power light comes on, the printhead jumps a little, and the motor whirs. So far, so good.

You boot up CP/M and get no surprises there. With you heart in your throat, you hit control-p to toggle the printer on, and zappo! No more CP/M prompt! The keyboard is dead!!! What happened? Or better yet (more mystifying anyway) you get the prompt

back but you try to print something and nothing comes out. Is it the cable? The baud rate? Is the printer no good? What do you do now?

Well, this is a good time to look at the instructions book for the printer, the computer, and the operating system. Barring all complications, chances are the manufacturers of your printer and computer haven't totally lied about their RS-232 compatibility, but there are many ways to stretch the issue.

The RS-232 Solution will help anyone to connect any two RS-232 devices. It's the kind of reference book many of us need—there are, however, a few ommissions and discrepancies in this one. Campbell is careful to explain everything there is to know about RS-232, including all the buzzwords; unfortunately, there are some gaps in relating the buzzwords to the real signals and their meanings.

The author wisely sets up a convention in labeling his data-flow diagrams. He starts out writing the names of inputs in lowercase letters, marking them with a ?, and writing outputs in uppercase letters, marking them with a !. On the very next page (and several other times in the book), he violates that convention. Although a minor inconvenience, it illustrates the nature of some of the book's flaws. I got the feeling that the book needed a technical wizard as an editor.

In spite of this minor beef, this book contains a wealth of knowledge about interfacing RS-232 devices. A set of instructions is developed that, if followed, will allow any real RS-232 device to connect to any other. The book is structured well, and can take even the total novice through the logic and signals of the RS-232 standard.

In explaining each one of the signal lines, the author uses many illustrations that make it easy to understand who's doing the talking and who's doing the listening. He also uses (usually humorous) cartoons illustrating excellent analogies to the purpose and functions of the handshaking lines, making these abstract concepts clear. There is even a chapter explaining the UART and how it functions in a serial interface. The book discusses signaling buffer full, pausing the transmitter and receiver, and generally what hand-

shaking is all about. There is even some mention of software handshaking, but since this book deals mostly with the hardware end of things, it is understandably brief.

Eventually the book plunges the reader, who is armed only with the knowledge and theories gained from the previous chapters, into the real world of finicky devices. Topics with hobbyist-sounding connotations like "tricking the interface" come up, but as the reader soon finds out, this sort of fiddling is necessary in the real world. At this point in the book, you get the facts of "what happens if I don't do this." Once you get through the next couple of chapters, you are set to try things out on a real device.

In fact, one chapter discusses a simple tool that will make it easier to start out. I'm sure that many people have considered buying one of the "breakout boxes" on the market that allows them to configure a cable that will make their printer (or modem) work with their computer. The author describes here how to build, at a savings of over \$100, a simple tool that performs the same function. I made one out of "junk box" parts in a little under 15 minutes, but if you had to buy all the parts new, it would still cost less than \$20.

After this, you get to put your hands on your devices, and let the sparks fly. Actually, Campbell is careful to point out what the RS-232 standard says on that subject. According to the standard, any interface line must be capable of withstanding a direct connection to any other line without damage to the interface or the equipment. So there is really no danger of sparks. With this knowledge firmly in hand, we march on to learn and practice the interfacing technique.

Steps are numbered 1 through 5 and must be completed in order. They are:

- 1) Set baud rate
- 2) Ascertain sex of the equipment
- 3) Satisfy device control logic
- 4) Locate the handshaking
- 5) Specify the cable

As we learn later, some of these steps get combined, but they are still done in this general order. Each one of the steps is explained in detail, and you may now go happily on your way, connecting DTE's to DCE's all day long.

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Washington State residents add sales tax. VISA and MASTERCARD accepted. Shipping included for prepaid orders. A latter section in the book takes you step-by-step through five actual case studies. They range from the simplest possible to the very tricky and difficult, but each one serves as an excellent example of all that has come before.

Basically, in spite of some of the confusion due to inconsistencies and unconnected concepts, this book should be on the shelves and workbenches of anyone who deals with these "universal" RS-232 devices. You could get the information in this book elsewhere, but only with much effort. I personally expect the pages of my copy of this book to become dog-eared and dirty.

The IBM PC Connection

James W. Coffron Sybex Computer Books, 1984 \$16.96, 260 pages

Reviewed by Eunice B. Ordman

The IBM PC Connection is a book for those with an elementary knowledge of BASIC (the IBM version of Microsoft BASIC) and no knowledge of electronics. It is a book for hobbyists, not a textbook. The author takes the reader step-by-step through both software and hardware aspects of interfacing the IBM PC. The uninitiated should be able to follow the author's instructions but may not understand much of what he is doing, particularly at first—Coffron tends to explain the functions of most of the components, without explaining how they work.

Readers will learn how to do sophisticated things such as building an alarm system that tells which switch set off the alarm. Other topics include computer speech output, temperature measurement with the computer using an integrated circuit as input, computer control of a variable speed motor, and analog-to-digital and digital-to-analog conversion.

For the uninitiated, Coffron discusses a preassembled input/output board and then progressing to more complex topics, he gives diagrams of circuits the reader can build. He does not present the reader with a huge complicated circuit, but introduces the parts of the circuit gradually—it takes perhaps four diagrams to present a given circuit. He even includes tips on

reading schematic diagrams. The reader is on his own when it comes to soldering, wire wrapping, and so forth, but such information is widely available. The appendix gives the necessary manufacturer's specifications for each integrated circuit used and the name of a supplier for each type of part used. (The suppliers on his list whom I've used have very reasonable prices.)

Coffron tells how to revise the circuits and programs for different circumstances. With a few more sentences, he could have given an explanation of address decoding, but instead, Coffron contents himself with showing circuits that use certain port addresses, using those addresses in his programs. He gives a diagram of the IBM PC Input/Output Connector, showing the abbreviations for all 62 signals, but he does not tell what many of the abbreviations stand for.

I think the average hobbyist will be glad that the author did not confuse him with unnecessary details. I myself would have preferred a bit more explanation, however.

Advanced Pascal Programming Techniques

Paul A. Sand Osborne/McGraw Hill, 1984 \$14.95, 370 pages

Reviewed by Bob Langevin

If L-Name is the name of a computer language, your favorite bookseller's shelves are filled with books with titles such as *Introduction to L-Name*, Easy L-Name, and L-Name for Beginners. When, you wonder, will you get to the really advanced stuff? Sand's new book, Advanced Pascal Programming Techniques (APPT), is one of the few available Pascal texts that will take you well past the introductory level.

Overview

Sands correctly observes that most introductions to a computer language provide numerous small examples to illustrate each of the language's features but few texts, if any, show how these features are used in building substantial and meaningful programs. His book is a serious attempt to remedy this defect.

In its introductory chapter the book discusses "What is a Good Program";

the remaining seven chapters of the book are a series of detailed case studies, each illustrating important design concepts. The chapter titles give a good indication of the material covered: "CRT Techniques"; "Interactive Input"; "Crunching Numbers—A General Purpose Calculator"; "Text File Tools"; "Games and Strategy"; "Simulation and Animation"; "The Plane Truth—An Electronic Worksheet".

Because the Apple II version of UCSD Pascal was used to develop the programs in the book, the appendix is especially useful—it discusses the problems of program portability and shows how features unique to UCSD Pascal and the Apple II can be implemented in the context of other Pascal compilers on other machines.

Features

The first chapter discusses the features that make a good program, viewed from both the user's and the programmer's point of view, an important distinction that is often not made. From the user's viewpoint, the important features are usefulness, ease of use, efficiency, flexibility, reliability, and suitability; from the programmer's, they are readability, portability, clarity, and modularity. Sand emphasizes the need to recognize that, during its lifetime, a real program will be repeatedly fixed, modified, and enhancedoften by someone who did not design or implement the original. The succeeding chapters show, by example, how the user's needs can be met and the programmer's objectives achieved.

It is noteworthy that the design of the applications in each of the case studies has been carefully crafted so that procedures and functions developed in one chapter become useful tools in the design and implementation of the case studies in succeeding chapters. There is a definite flavor of the Unix design and development philosophy here.

In the second chapter, on CRT techniques, Sand shows how to write a Pascal procedure to manage the cursor and screen control features of a CRT. These are used in implementing a simple program that creates, displays, and solves mazes. This program is of little inherent interest, and the brief discus-

sion of CRT management procedures in the beginning of the chapter could have better appeared as an introduction to the next chapter of interactive input.

Unquestionably, the effective management of user interaction with a program is of critical importance in achieving user satisfaction and controlling input errors of all kinds. Sand, in Chapter 3, provides a good discussion of interactive input and error control in the course of developing "gaslog," an application program that maintains and reports gasoline usage data for an automobile. Surprisingly, this deceptively simple program provides the motivation for developing procedures for string input and string manipulation, boolean and fixed-point numeric input, date handling, and a variety of type transformers to convert between string and various numeric

In Chapter 4 Sand uses the development of a general-purpose calculator as a vehicle for addressing error control, a data structure for "extended" real numbers, a simple parser of user input, and functions to convert back and forth between strings and the "extended" reals that Sand has devised.

Next Sand discusses text file tool. These include tools to open or close an existing text file to read a string from or write a string to a text file, to create a new text file for output, and to get a text filename from the user. These functions are used to develop a simple file copy program and, much more interestingly, a rather elegant program for printing text files. The latter offers the opportunity for a good discussion of the use of escape sequences for initializing a printer and the incorporation of procedures for changing print parameters to control the format of the output.

The print program also supports chaining of files to be printed. Aside from its utility as a learning device, this print program is a useful tool for any program developer. In addition if used with a good full-screen text edi-

tor, the combination makes a serviceable word-processing package.

Chapter 6 is devoted entirely to the design and implementation of a program to play Reversi-with a brief side trip to describe Apple II graphics capabilities. While this has some interest if you happen to want a program to play Reversi, the design considerations are so unique to the structure of this particular game and game board that you can neither generalize nor extend considerations of Reversi's appropriate data structures and procedures for moving pieces and position evaluation to other games. If you are not a Reversi fan, you can skip this chapter without losing much.

Next, simulation and animation are illustrated by designing and implementing two simulations: "bounder," which simulates the motion of several balls moving inside a box under the influence of a constant acceleration field, and "isaac," which uses many of the same program components and simulates the motion of several balls

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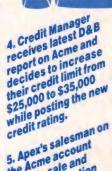
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moving under their mutual gravitational attraction. Several sets of initial conditions are provided for "isaac" that result in simulations of earth-sun, earth-moon-sun, and Lagrangian systems. The displays associated with both simulations depend entirely on the graphics display capabilities of the Apple II and would require major revision to accommodate the graphic characteristics of other computer systems.

Sand's book concludes with the development of "pascalc," a basic but usable spreadsheet program. Although this program does not approach the sophisticated capabilities of commercially available spreadsheet programs, it affords a useful study of Pascal procedures for dynamic memory management. In addition, and since any useful spreadsheet has dimensions substantially larger than the available screen area, "pascalc" includes the development of effective screen management procedures. As in the preceding chapters. Sand has taken some care to design "pascalc" so that it makes substantial use of procedures and functions developed earlier in the

The book is strengthened by the inclusion of suggestions and recommended reading at the end of each chapter. The suggestions, some of which are quite challenging (and time-consuming), address possible and desirable enhancements to each chapter's program. The references included in the recommended reading are usefully annotated to indicate their relevance to the text—a uniformly desirable procedure.

Evaluation

There is no doubt that you can improve prove your programming skills by careful study of Sand's book, especially if you actually work through in detail the sections of interest to you. His book failed, however, to meet my expectations in several important respects.

First of all, the book is too "even." Sand gives you no indication whatsoever of the relative importance or general utility of any of the ideas, procedures, or functions discussed. A twelve-line procedure to send a termination sequence to a printer, for example, receives neither more nor less em-

phasis than "stor," which converts a string into a real number.

Second, because the book is structured around explicit case studies, related topics end up scattered through several chapters. By way of example, various functions to convert between strings and numeric data types appear in chapters 3, 4, 6, 8, and 9. As a result, the basic characteristics of such type conversions are never developed and presented. Data structures likewise "pop up" when they are required, so that an organized view of data structures and their relationships is entirely absent.

Finally and again due to its structure, the book isn't very suitable for reference purposes—you can't really look anything up in it. As indicated earlier, the table of contents is only eleven lines long, so it isn't of much help. The index isn't much better, particularly because most index entries reference data structures, procedures, and functions that are unique to the book's case studies. When the entries do purport to be more general, they are often nearly useless; for example, under the major heading of Algorithms the only subheadings that appear are Minimax and Shell sort!

In summary, Advanced Pascal Programming Techniques does develop numerous useful tools that are applied to the design and implementation of substantial programs. It does not, however, live up to its title. Techniques, as such, are never really discussed. You won't find in the book an organized presentation of typical "technique" topics such as screen design, error trapping, algorithm efficiency, program efficiency, data structures, modularity, design for maintainability, program testing, and documentation. If you prefer a strong technique orientation, you would do much better with a book such as Advanced Programming and Problem Solving with Pascal (Schneider and Bruell, John Wiley & Sons, 1981)—in my opinion, the best text available on advanced programming techniques.

Computer Algebra V.162 of Lecture Notes in Computer Science

Edited by J. A. van Hulzen Springer-Verlag 305 pages

Reviewed by Morton F. Kaplon

This volume, No. 162 in the Springer-Verlag series Lecture Notes in Computer Science, is the third one dedicated to a computer algebra conference. The conference, EUROCAL '83, was held at the Kingston Polytechnic, Surrey, England, from 28 March, 1983 to 30 March, 1983. EUROCAL represents the EUROpean Computer ALgebra Community. The conference was organized under the responsibility of SAME (Symbolic and Algebraic Manipulation in Europe) and in cooperation with SIGSAM (Special Interest Group on Symbolic and Algebraic Manipulation) and with the official approval of ACM.

A natural question is "What is computer algebra?" A response is best given by quoting from the concluding statements of Professor van Hulzen's introduction:

"Many of the conference participants recognized that publication of real lecture notes about fundamental aspects and use of computer algebra, for instance in this Series, might largely contribute in establishing the user community and the more general interest computer algebra deserves, at least according to its adepts. This will certainly contribute to a communis opinio, and probably also to a 'definition'."

Does that leave you puzzled? This volume presents 27 research papers, organized in seven categories as follows: Algorithms 1 — Miscellaneous; Applications — Miscellaneous; Systems and Language Features; Algorithms 2 — Polynomial Ideal Bases; Algorithms 3 — Computational Number Theory; Algorithms 4 — Factorization; and System Oriented Applications. This volume and the papers presented are not for the novice and do not constitude easy reading. The range of material covered is quite broad, covering the spectrum from aspects of pure mathematics to the realization of programs in terms of specific hardware.

The first paper, entitled "Integration—What do We Want from the Theory?", reflects one end of that spectrum. The author, in discussing the state of the theory relating to the

integration of algebraic functions, proves an existence theorem using a non-constructive proof—certainly, not a very useful result for those interested in writing programs. At the other end we have "Implementing REDUCE on a Microcomputer" (this is not a recipe) and "The Design of MAPLE: A Compact, Portable, and Powerful Computer Algebra System." The latter will yield to the programmatically inclined a sense of the aims of Computer Algebra as reflected in software.

Do not be misled, however. As noted, the range of Computer Algebra is broad, but that range does include significant aspects relating to artificial intelligence. There also are articles that are certainly germane to developments in microcomputer software and perhaps even to hardware at a very basic level. These include, among others, "A Knowledge-Based Approach to User-Friendliness in Symbolic Computing," "Computer Algebra and VLSI," and "The Bath Concurrent LISP Machine." If you want to get a feel for what is going on at the frontier of this interesting and important field, a few dedicated hours of selective reading from this volume may prove quite informative and even potentially useful. And if you know LISP, you will even occasionally feel at home.

New Books

In addition to books we formally review, we see lots of titles that we think you might as least want to know about. We will from time to time provide a list of such books along with a brief impression or description. Here is our first batch.

Ada—An Advanced Introduction Including Reference Manual for the Ada Programming Language

Narain Gehani
Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New
Jersey, 1984.
\$19.95, 291 pages
One thick book

Advanced Programming in Microsoft BASIC

Gabriel Cuellar Reston Publishing, Reston, Virginia, 1984. \$16.95, 152 pages
A "second" book on BASIC. Contains

Directory of Public Domain (And User-Supported) Software For the IBM Personal Computer

PC SIG

programming tools and hints.

PC SIG, Santa Clara, California, 1984.

\$4.95, 109 pages
The PC Software Interest Group's directory.

Free Software For the IBM PC

Bertram Gader and Manuel V. Nodar Warner, New York, 1984. \$8.95, 462 pages Software on 45 electronic bulletin boards.

Interactive Programming Environments

David R. Barstow, Howard E. Shrobe, and Erik Sandewall, eds.
McGraw-Hill, New York, 1984.
\$34.95, 570 pages
Adele Goldberg on Object languages, Brian Kernighan on Unix, Terry Winograd looking beyond programming languages.

Invitation to AdaCondensed Version

Harry Katzan, Jr. \$14.95, 166 pages Petrocelli, New York, 1984. Hospitable Harry Katzan, Jr., has written a series of "Invitiation to—" books for Petrocelli. Here, he invites the almost-beginner to sample the rudiments of the language they speak at the Department of Defense.

Learning LISP

Jeff Shrager, Steve Bagley, Steware Schiffman and Steve Cherry Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1984.

\$14.95, 199 pages

Comes with a LISP disk for the Apple.

On Conceptual Modeling

Perspectives from Artificial Intelligence, Databases, and Programming Languages

Topics in Information Systems series Michael L. Brodie, John Mylopoulos, and Joachim W. Schmidt, eds. Springer-Verlag, New York, 1984. \$29.25, 460 pages

How to encode knowledge. Papers presenting three approaches to a fundamental problem in the design of the commercial artificial intelligence packages called expert systems.

Pascal For Programmers

Olivier Lecarme and Jean-Louis
Nebut

McGraw-Hill, New York, 1984. \$22.95, 267 pages

Presents ISO Standard Pascal. Assumes knowledge of at least one high-level language. The authors believe that Pascal enjoys the popularity it does partly because, when it was released, no agency, organization or vendor made any attempt to support it.

Programming In C

Stephen G. Kochan Hayden, Hasbrouck Heights NJ, 1983.

\$18.95, 365 pages

Krishna K. Agarwal

Attempts to speak both to complete novices and to experienced programmers.

Programming With Structured Flowcharts

Petrocelli, New York, 1984. \$12.00, 166 pages Why you should use those enclosedspace Nassi-Schneiderman flowcharts.

The Elements of Friendly Software Design

Paul Heckel

Warner, New York, 1984. \$8.95, 192 pages Serialized in InfoWorld in 1982. How to program like D. W. Griffith. Heckel is nothing if not eclectic.

The IBM PC-DOS Handbook

Richard Allen King Sybex, Berkeley, 1983. \$16.95, 288 pages Includes appendices on

Includes appendices on the differences between PCDOS and MSDOS and among early version of PCDOS.

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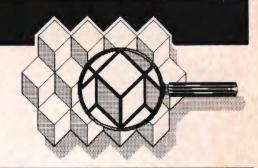
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by R.P. Sutherland

Software Tools

Borland (Turbo Pascal) International is now offering **Turbo Toolbox** to complement its Pascal compiler for Z80 and 8088/8086 microcomputers. Turbo Toolbox is a set of programming tools for data base, terminal installation, and sort applications. Two of the five tools, Turbo-ISAM (Index Sequential Access Method) and Quicksort, are available with commented source code. Turbo Toolbox is available for \$49.95 from Borland International, 4113 Scotts Valley Drive, Scotts Valley, CA 95066. Reader Service No. 101.

Csharp Realtime Toolkit from the Systems Guild is a set of real-time, multitasking C programmer tools distributed in source code to allow user modification. Cgraph, for example, lets programmers write portable graphics programs and configure graphic system parameters by using C procedure calls. Csched (real-time scheduling of user procedures) creates a multitasking environment where each scheduled procedure can turn to completion unless interrupted by a procedure with a higher authority. Csharp tools are processor independent and run on 8- and 16-bit processors as well as on the entire PDP-11 family. Csharp tools will run under many operating systems, including Unix and RT11, and can also be imbedded in stand-alone software. The Csharp Realtime Toolkit is available under a single source license for \$600 from Systems Guild, Inc., P.O. Box 1085, Cambridge, MA 02142. Reader Service No. 103.

C_to_dBASE, from Computer Innovations, provides the ability to write C applications for dBASE files. The \$150 price tag (there are no additional royalty charges) includes the complete

source code plus 70 functions that enable C programmers to perform operations on dBASE and index files. C_to_dBASE is available directly from Computer Innovations, Inc., 980 Shrewsbury Avenue, Suite R, Tinton Falls, NJ 07724. Reader Service No. 105

iLISP, from Computing Insights, is a new implementation of LISP for Z80 microcomputers, iLISP runs under CP/M 2.2 and is based on the LISP dialect developed by Gerry Sussman called SCHEME. One of the advanced LISP features includes a complete, extendable implementation of ELIZA. the famous psychotherapist parody. iLISP is available on both 8- and 51/4inch disk formats (including Kaypro, Morrow, Zenith, and Osborne). The list price of \$49.95 includes a 60-page introduction to iLISP programming. For more information write: Computing Insights, P.O. Box 4033, Madison, WI 53711. Reader Service No. 107.

Graphics

The STB Graphix Plus II is a video adaptor board for the IBM PC that supports both color and monochrome displays. I dropped one into my Eagle PC and now my Eagle flies "Flight Simulator." Three interesting extras are: (1) a 64K printer buffer; (2) "PC Accelerator," which supports print spooling and which offers a quick-start option that fools the PC into thinking only 64K of RAM is resident; and (3) an electronic RAM disk utility program. The package includes a 16-color driver for Lotus 1-2-3. The price is \$495. For additional information contact STB Systems, Inc., 601 North Glenville Ave., Suite 125, Richardson, TX 75081. Reader Service No. 109.

Voices

ProTalker by Speech Ltd. provides S-100 systems and IBM PCs with voice output capability. Advanced users can interface ProTalker to most programming languages and applications because source code is provided. ProTalker is a digitizer/synthesizer that is switch selectable to rates of 4, 6, or 8 kHz. Adaptive delta pulse code modulation is used to reduce the size of digital recordings. Recordings are stored on disk until needed and can be accessed randomly under program control for play back. A telephone demo of ProTalker is running at (415) 858-2795. The price is under \$350, available from Speech Ltd., 3790 El Camino Real, Suite 213, Palo Alto, CA 94306. Reader Service No. 111.

SynPhonix 100 is a speech synthesizer for the Apple II family. The board plugs directly into Apple II slots 1 – 7. The package includes a speech operating system on diskette. Users can generate speech and sound effects and incorporate them into software with standard BASIC statements. The SynPhonix 100 retails for \$135 and is available from Arctic Technologies, 2234 Star Court, Auburn Heights, MI 48057. Reader Service No. 113.

The VocaLink Speech Recognition Board is a single-slot voice recognition board and software package for the IBM PC that allows users to operate off-the-shelf programs with up to 240 spoken commands. The SRB incorporates a high-speed, 16-bit Intel 80186 microprocessor to manage the complex operations required to accurately recognize discrete words/phrases spoken by a specific individual. Other hardware features include: the ASA-16 (a custom audio spectrum analysis

chip), 128K RAM, 32K EPROM, and the cabling required to connect a microphone, headset earphone, and voice synthesizer. The VocaLink Speech Recognition Board costs \$1700 and is aimed at OEMs and sophisticated endusers. Inquiries should be addressed to Jim Bright, Interstate Voice Products, 1849 W. Sequoia Ave., Orange, CA 92668. Reader Service No. 115.

Macintosh

MacModula

Modula Corporation believes that, compared to Modula-2, using any other programming method is analogous to doing arithmetic in Roman numerals. If Modula-2 is to replace Pascal, then a Pascal-to-Modula-2 converter seems a sensible product. Modula Corporation has announced a range of software tools for use by developers of Modula-2 applications. A Modula-2 compiler, interpreter, and a Pascal-to-Modula-2 sourcecode converter are available for Macintosh as well as for Apple's other machines (and IBM PCs and compatibles). The Macintosh versions feature enhanced, bit-mapped graphics support, which the company claims is superior to any Apple-supplied Macintosh products. Modula Corporation is at 950 N. University Ave., Provo, UT 84604. Reader Service No. 117.

The Ultimate Mr. Potato-Head

MicronEye for Macintosh is an imaging peripheral that allows the Macintosh to take pictures! The user can accept an image into MacPaint and then subject that image to all of the features of MacPaint. The possibilities for Mr. Potato-Head-like manipulation of one's friends or enemies are staggering. MicronEye is available for \$395 from Micron Technology, Inc., Vision Systems Group, 2805 E. Columbia Road, Boise, ID 83706. Reader Service No. 119.

Mac Learns to Read

Oberon International has a Z80-based type-reader that is compatible with Macintosh. Omni-Reader can read four different typefaces and has the ability to learn others. The device allows one to read text into a computer at the rate

of 80 characters per second. Omni-Reader is manufactured in the United Kingdom and retails for \$500. Contact Oberon International, McArthur Plaza, Suite 630, LB48, 5525 McArthur Blvd, Irving, TX 75062. Reader Service No. 121.

Attention User Groups

If you would like your user group to be included in a *National Directory of User Groups*, send a stamped, self addressed envelope to: Ken Ryder, P.O. Box 4102, Rome, NY 13440.



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Computers 'n Kids Adventure Fair is looking for games and educational software written by people up to 17 years old. Winners will have the chance to demonstrate their programs at the first annual Computers 'n Kids Adventure Fair, which will be held at the San Francisco Concourse (8th and Brannan) from October 18 – 21. For more information call (415) 848-6860.

Isaac Asimov has published a book for children called *How Did We Find Out About Computers?* Asimov places the invention of the computer in the context of history by tracing the development of man's ability to calculate from counting on fingers, to the

abacus, to the slide rule, to the inventions of Pascal and Babbage. The illustrations by David Wool include Pascal (illustration center page), Jacquard's first loom, the Hollerith tabulator, Vannevar Bush's differential analyzer, and Aiken's Mark One. Asimov concludes this well-written and informative history with an affirmation of human intelligence (or is it a challenge to DDJ readers?): "... when I write a story, I write as fast as I can and put one word after another in just the right order until I am finished. But how can I tell a computer to do it? Even if I put a whole dictionary of words into its memory, how can I tell it what word to put first, and what second, and what third? How can I explain to it how to choose the order of words so that it can write a brandnew story, just the way I do it, when I don't know how I do it?" How Did We Find Out About Computers? is priced at \$8.85 (ISBN 8027-6533-5) from the publisher, Walker and Company, 720 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10019, Reader Service No. 123.

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